The Integration of a Not-for-profit Organisation into a For-profit Supply Chain: Exploring Issues in Creating Shared Value in the Case of Food Banking in Tasmania, Australia

by

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Statements and Declarations

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The research associated with this thesis abides by the international and Australian codes on human and animal experimentation, the guidelines by the Australian Government's Office of the Gene Technology Regulator and the rulings of the Safety, Ethics and Institutional Biosafety Committees of the University.

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Abstract

Since the late Twentieth Century, there has been a global proliferation of not-for-profit organisations and an increased interest in how they collaborate with for-profit organisations in the delivery of social products and services. While in the 'business and society' literature such social value creating arrangements have been referred to and popularised as 'Creating Shared Value' (CSV), there remains a lack (especially with regard to some of CSV's larger claims) of a finer-grained understanding of the processes involved in a given set of for-profit and not-for-profit arrangements that operate under apparent CSV-like conditions in a Supply Chain Management (SCM) context. An archetypical example is a not-for-profit food banking organisation that aims to address food supply chain waste issues by sourcing surplus food stuffs from food and grocery supply chain donors. This example provided a research opportunity and setting which allowed for an investigation of how not-for-profits (with social agendas of their own) collaborate with for-profit supply chain members and the implications for supply chain theory. The study adopted a quasi-longitudinal single case study design to address the research questions**:** what strategic priorities are evident for a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain? And, what types of shared value is perceived as strategically important by the managers of a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain? In response to the first research question a seven stage Process Model of supply chain integration informed a finer-grained understanding of the not-for-profit and for-profit interface with regard to food banks in food supply chains and to issues in SCM theory. In response to the second research question, from the food bank's viewpoint, the continuous improvements in organisational efficiency over time and the different types of shared value identified facilitated both the supply chain's needs and supported the further growth of the food bank. However, paradoxically, since the growth of the food bank is fundamentally reliant upon the production of more food waste within food and grocery supply chains, the social efficacy

of the CSV-like conditions remains in doubt. The study therefore contributes to an improved understanding of inter-sectoral collaborative efforts that balance social efficacy with business efficiency and growth in a realistic SCM context. Further study is needed in order to establish the net positive contribution made to society (or, the actual social value created), as a result of the growth of food banking products and services, through the agency of supply chain integration under CSV-like conditions or otherwise.

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List of Tables and Figures

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List of Acronyms

Acronym	Explanation
ABS	Australian Bureau of Statistics
ABC TV	Australian Broadcasting Corporation Television
ACCC	Australian Competition and Consumer Commission
ACNC	Australian Charites and Not-for-profits Commission
APICS	American Production and Inventory Control Society
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
CSR	Corporate Social Responsibility
CSV	Creating Shared Value
DC	Distribution Centre
DPAC	The Tasmanian Department of Premier and Cabinet
EFR	Emergency Food Relief
EFROS	Emergency Food Relief Outreach Service
EMS	Environmental Management System
EU	European Union
FSCT	Food Security Council of Tasmania
GFN	Global Foodbanking Network
GHG	Greenhouse Gas (emissions)
HIC	High Income Country
MNC	Multinational Corporation
MP	Member of Parliament
MSC	Multi-Stakeholder Collaboration
NFP	Not-for-profit Organisation
NGO	Non-government Organisation
QMS	Quality Management System
Rotary	The Rotary Club of Australia

RTBG	Royal Tasmanian Botanical Gardens
SBQ	SecondBite Queensland
SCC	Supply Chain Council
SCM	Supply Chain Management
SCOR	Supply Chain Organisation Reference
SROI	Social Return on Investment
SRT	State-wide Refrigerated Transport
SSCM	Sustainable Supply Chain Management
TAC	(SecondBite) Tasmanian Advisory Committee
TCF	Tasmanian Community Fund
TCFGA	Tasmanian Community Food Garden Association
TPS	Tasmanian Prison Service

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Chapter One

1.0 Introduction

1.1 Chapter Objectives

The objective of this chapter is to introduce this thesis. The chapter will start by providing the rationale for the thesis. It will then briefly outline the background to the spread and the growth of food banking and how, despite the different views of food banking as an effective social value creating response, Australian food banks now play a prominent but little studied role in addressing food waste issues in food and grocery supply chains. This research setting provides for the broad research opportunity of studying issues in shared value generating supply chain collaborations from a not-for-profit organisational management viewpoint. Lastly, an outline of the structure of the thesis is provided.

1.2 Rationale for the Thesis

1.2.1 Not-for-profit Organisations and their Relationships with For-profit Businesses

Since the late twentieth century there has been a global proliferation of different not-for-profit organisations and an increased interest in how the not-for-profit sector impacts the delivery of social products and services under post-welfare state like conditions (Salamon et al. 1999). While some of these not-for-profits operate fairly independently of business, recently the 'growing willingness' of business to support not-for-profits in order to earn 'reputational capital' has seen not-for-profit and for-profit business partnerships become a more common response (Salamon 2012). However, in return for providing resources, a business partner may have certain expectations of a not-for-profit and, notwithstanding any controversies about the implications of these expectations (e.g. for the 'social mission'), not-for-profits are (1)

becoming more ‘business-like’ (Maier et al. 2016), and (2) are challenged with becoming more transparent and accountable to their supporters (Salamon 2012) (see the recent advent of the ‘Australian Charites and Not-for-profits Commission’; ACNC, 2016). Therefore, not-for-profit and for-profit business collaborations are one means by which not-for-profits can access the resources needed to pursue their social mission more ‘professionally’, and businesses (especially those being scrutinised by the sector) can access Corporate Social Responsibility benefits (Seitanidi & Crane 2008), including much needed ‘reputational capital’ (Salamon 2012).

Recently, in the ‘business and society’ literature and in practice alike, the foregoing type of arrangement has been referred to and popularised as a type of ‘shared value’ arrangement (Porter & Kramer 2011). According to the strategic management literature, social investments by business should be undertaken only where they are aligned with the value chain (Porter 2008) and therefore the business unit’s particular strategic intent (Porter & Kramer 2006). More recently, this idea has been further developed under the rubric of Creating Shared Value (CSV) and promoted as a ’third-way’ for re-establishing lost public confidence in business (Porter & Kramer 2011). CSV is promoted as being superior to extant Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) related concepts such as the ‘Managing for Stakeholders’ view (Freeman 2010) and holds that a business should ignore pressure from, for example, the proliferation of politically active not-for-profits and NGOs (e.g. Greenpeace). Instead, a business should only address social issues with regard to investing in a social agenda of its own choosing (Porter & Kramer 2011) and receiving measurable benefits consistent with the strategy (e.g. productivity and profitability) (Porter et al. 2011). That is, rather than being explained in more complex social responsibility, ethical (Beschorner 2013) or sustainability terms (Elkington 2015), under CSV, a not-for-profit and business alliance is more simply described from the view of the business’ meeting its resource productivity and other needs by incorporating a social agenda into its

strategy (Porter & Kramer 2011). However, in the case of food banking (see the next section), while the 'win-win' arrangements are fairly apparent on the surface, what is currently missing (especially with regard to CSV's larger 'business and society' claims) is a finer-grained understanding of the processes involved in a given set of for-profit business and not-for-profit organisational supply chain arrangements and an examination of the issues associated with the process of putting effect to the social benefits promised under CSV-like conditions.

1.2.2 Research Setting: The Case of Food Banking

An archetypical example of apparent CSV-like conditions is that in the recently emergent food banking industry (GFN 2106; SecondBite 2014); Food banking is 'one of the fastest growing charitable industries' in more developed nations (Riches 2002, p. 648), and it is now an institutionalised means by which food organisations and others attempt to address many of the issues involved in managing food waste and hunger in communities (GFN 2016). Food banks are not-for-profit organisations that aim to address food supply chain food waste issues by sourcing surplus food stuffs from food and grocery industry donors and redistributing this food through intermediary social welfare charities to 'people in need' (SecondBite 2014). As such, the practice of food banking has the appealing dual social goals of 'rescuing' food that may otherwise have gone to landfill (thus reducing costs at an industry level and potential greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions) while simultaneously 'reducing hunger' in local communities (GFN 2016; SecondBite 2014).

The popularity of CSV (Crane et al. 2014) for describing such arrangements (e.g. SecondBite 2014), along with the growth and popularity of food banking are interesting phenomena found at the not-for-profit and business sector interface. However, as implied above, it remains unclear *how* CSV's criteria of a profit seeking food business's self-interest and an 'internally generated social agenda' actually impacts the not-for-profit sector organisation in addressing

its social goals. With regard to food banking practice, to focus on a real issue and example, the goal of reducing food waste in food supply chains, this may in theory serve the interests of both the not-for-profit (it gains business inputs) and the food business (it lowers its waste disposal costs). However, there is little in the way of research into the nature of food banking as it exists in Australia with regard to how its apparent 'win-win', social value creating arrangements function and to what extent the success of which can be attributed to CSV or otherwise. This lack of knowledge is all the more notable as the proliferation of food banks in more developed nations such as Australia continues (see the following section) and, not only food supply chain organisations but also governments (in this case, the Tasmanian Government) are following global trends and increasingly investing in and appear more reliant upon food banking policies as a solution to social and environmental ills (DPAC 2014).

1.2.3 Origins and Proliferation of Food Banks

The rise of current modes of food banking and the growth and spread of these organisations in Western economies is particularly noteworthy (Riches 2002; Gentilini 2013). While official government food relief organisations can be traced back to at least the 1930s (e.g. 'Vic Relief' in Victoria, Australia), the first modern food banks were established in the 1960s in the USA. Notwithstanding some variations (see the Australian variations in Chapter Four), these modern food banks are in the literature described, and generally operate, as:

> centralized warehouses or clearing houses registered as non-profit organizations for the purpose of collecting, storing and distributing surplus food (donated/shared), free of charge either directly to hungry people or to front line social agencies which provide supplementary food and meals (Riches 2002, p. 650).

According to the Daily Bread Food Bank the philosophy of the first food bank was:

> simply to marry the interests of the food industry to cope effectively with surplus, unsaleable food with those of grass roots poverty organizations (cited in Riches 2002, p. 651).

In the literature and the food banks' own reports, the institutionalisation of food banking (Poppendieck 1994) is driven by at least five 'global' factors:

1) Governments partly or wholly withdrawing from the direct delivery of welfare state-like food programs (Riches 2002);
2) The subsequent increased reliance upon food banks by the frontline (intermediary) social welfare charities for the provision of food (Lambie-Mumford 2013);
3) The nature of the food industry's waste management policies and practices of which food banks are an integral part (Tarasuk & Eakin 2005);
4) Provisions such as protection from legal liability (Akron Food Bank 2014) and tax deductions for food donors (Ontario Ministry of Agriculture, Food and Rural Affairs 2015); and
5) Promotion by global food banking networks and national associations (e.g. The Global Foodbank Network - or GFN - and Food Banks Canada, respectively).

As such, it is apparent that the delivery of social welfare food products and services is increasingly undertaken by the private sector and not-for-profit food banking arrangements (Riches 2002, 2011), which became even more prominent post 'Global Financial Crisis' (Gentilini 2013). Food banking is now considered a large industry in the USA; with the largest food banking organisation, 'Feeding America', reaching the majority of an estimated 37 million recipients of food bank services. This represents a large portion of all 'High Income Countries' (HICs), with Gentilini (2013) asserting that a conservative estimate of almost 60 million persons received food bank assistance in HICs. Food banks are now found in six continents (GFN Annual Report 2013) including in Australia, where food banking has also become an institutionalised response to the management of the food industries' food surpluses.

1.2.4 Encompassing Different Views of Food Banking

A central issue in the literature is the proximity of not-for-profit food banks to the for-profit supply chains of the food industries (Midgley 2014) which can be viewed in both positive (see

GFN and 'The value we bring' 2016) and negative terms (see Tarasuk & Eakin 2005). For example, the Global Foodbanking Network (GFN), whom in 2015 formed a partnership with global food organisation Unilever, saw food banking as:

> …a solution to the interrelated problems of world hunger, food losses and food waste … food banking helps to nourish individuals, strengthen communities, and support food systems (Global Foodbanking Network 2013, p. 1).

As Gentilini (2013, p. 12) advocates:

> food banks can represent a successful model for synergistic partnerships between civil society, the private sector and governments.

Under these views, the supporters of food banking include governments, the for-profit food industry, community organisations (e.g. The Rotary Club of Australia), celebrities, community leaders and 'high profile' business people (see examples in OzHarvest's Annual Report 2014). On the other hand, the rise of food banking and its continuing growth and integration into for-profit food and grocery supply chains is seen by some critics as a poor neo-liberal response and public policy failure (see Riches 2002). Some go further by stating that the arrangements seen in food banking could in some ways contribute to the problems of global hunger and waste in food supply chains supposedly being addressed by the larger food banks (see Alexander & Smaje 2008; Warshawsky 2010; Lambie-Mumford 2013; for criticism along these lines). Related, but more pertinent criticism of interest to this study, is that food banks are accused of being so closely implicated in the food industries' supply chain agendas that they are unable to fully deliver on their social mission or, put differently: food banks only exist to service 'corporate' disposal needs (Tarasuk & Eakin 2005). However, given the reality of rising levels of food waste in global food supply chains (Parfitt et al. 2010; Gustavson et al. 2011); retail food supply chains in particular (Food Waste Reduction Alliance 2013), the emergence and rapid growth of food banking in Australia is one practical response (Garrone et al. 2014; Pilar & Coque 2016). Given another reality about how food banking in Australia is able to attract increasingly popular support and resources from the private sector, individuals, community

organisations and governments (see subsequent chapters), it may benefit other not-for-profit organisations to learn about how an Australian food bank effectively integrated itself into a for-profit (food and grocery) supply chain environment.

1.3 Research Opportunity

1.3.1 Broad Research Opportunity

Given the preceding discussion about the institutionalisation of food banking and its increasingly prominent role in managing food waste in food supply chains, the broad research opportunity is: *'What factors are associated with the integration of not-for-profit food bank into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain?'*

1.3.2 The Integration of a Not-for-profit into a For-profit Supply Chain

As mentioned, despite the popular appeal of food banking and its institutionalisation as a social response, and its current importance to its diverse organisational stakeholder groups (e.g. business, governments, social welfare, and community organisations), little has been studied about how food banks actually emerge, generate growth, and operate, especially within for-profit supply chains otherwise focused on generating economic profit. While it is evident that a food bank's membership of a food and grocery supply chain underpins a continuous supply of food surpluses (or 'business inputs') and that some form or another of shared value is created, there is a lack of detailed knowledge about the manner in which not-for-profits integrate themselves into for-profit supply chains, and the implications for supply chain theory, with particular regard to CSV as an emergent academic and popular practitioner, yet controversial (Crane et al. 2014), conceptualisation of shared value.

1.4 Structure of the Thesis

The thesis proceeds in seven chapters; following this introductory chapter, Chapter Two presents a literature review of the CSV and supply chain concepts, and presents the research questions to be addressed. Chapter Three explains why the quasi-longitudinal qualitative case study as a research strategy was adopted, and how the methods of documentary analysis, interviews and observation were applied in addressing the research questions posed in Chapter Two. Chapter Four's chronology provides detailed information about the case study organisation, including a historical account spanning the years from 2008 to 2015 of how a new food bank (and, as a result, a new regional food banking system) emerged. The question of how a food bank effectively integrated itself into a for-profit supply chain over time is addressed in the results in Chapter Five with regard to its strategic priorities and the types of shared value created. The discussion in Chapter Six examines the issues and the resulting implications of the integration of the food bank into for-profit supply chains for the delivery of its promised value, its own social mission and the implications for the conceptualisation of extant social value creation concepts as 'CSV'. In its conclusions, Chapter Seven will provide a model that contributes to a finer-grained understanding of the not-for-profit and for-profit interface with regard to food banks in food supply chains and to issues in CSV theory.

1.5 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter has provided a rationale for the research setting and the opportunity to study the growing Australian not-for-profit food banking sector in a supply chain context, looking through the lens of the emergent CSV concept. This is done from the view of a case study food bank that works closely with private sector food businesses in order to deliver its promised environmental *and* social welfare objectives. The structure of the thesis was then briefly outlined. The next chapter describes how the food bank's supply chain integration may be

explored and described, and the implications explained, with regard to the literature that is situated at the business, society and supply chain management interface, including CSV.

Chapter Two

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Chapter Objectives

The objectives of this chapter are four-fold. Firstly, the chapter will present a summary of the Supply Chain Management (SCM) literature, with an emphasis on the role of inter-organisational collaboration. Secondly, it will discuss Corporate Social Responsibility (CSR) and Sustainable Supply Chain Management (SSCM) literature, which extends SCM to the management of supply chain social impacts (such as rising levels of food waste) encompassing organisations such as not-for-profit food banks. Thirdly, the concept of Creating Shared Value (CSV) is discussed with regard to integrating a not-for-profit organisations' activities with value implications at the level of the organisation, the supply chain and society. Finally, the specific research questions are presented to explore the strategic priorities and the 'shared value' adding activities associated with the integration of a *not*-for-profit food bank into a *for*-profit food and grocery supply chain.

2.2 Supply Chain Management

2.2.1 Supply Chain Definition and Overview

The purpose of this section is to provide a definition and an overview of 'supply chain', before presenting other concepts and issues related to the integration of a not-for-profit organisation with a social mission into a supply chain with an emphasis on costs and profit.

A generally agreed definition of the supply chain concept has been forwarded by Mentzer et al. (2001, p. 4, cited in Ellram & Cooper 2014):

> [A supply chain is] a set of three or more entities (organisations or individuals) directly involved in the upstream and downstream flows of products, services, finances and/or information from and to a customer.

Mentzer et al. (2001) identified three specific types of supply chain with regard to degrees of complexity: (1) *direct* (2) *extended*, and (3) *ultimate*. A 'direct' supply chain comprises the focal organisation (or the lead organisation under study) and its 'upstream suppliers' and 'downstream customers' (often represented as the directional relationship: *Suppliers ➔ Focal Organisation ➔ Customers*. The 'extended' supply chain (which is often the default referred to in the literature), extends the scope of the relationship to third-party suppliers and customers (e.g. *Supplier's Supplier(s)➔ Supplier(s)➔ Focal Organisation➔Customer(s)➔ Customer's Customer*). Added complexity in the extended supply chain raises questions in the literature about the relationships between parties (Weitz & Jap 1995) with more interest emerging about bi-lateral control, personal relationships and trust, as opposed to the focal organisation's unilateral power (Weitz & Jap 1995). The 'ultimate' supply chain model adds to the extended supply chain activities by including third-party logistics, finance and marketing (Mentzer et al. 2001). Given the increased interest in the literature in supply chain integration, the resulting complexity of supply chain networks requires more relationship management and inter-organisational collaborative efforts than previously thought (Mentzer et al. 2001; Ellram & Cooper 2014; APICS SCC 2016b). One such form of collaboration involves for-profit and not-for-profit sector organisations working together (as was explained in Chapter One in the form of the emergent Australian food banking sector).

In much supply chain literature (as follows), the integration of supply chain activities is usually undertaken with a profit and cost focus. In order to improve supply chain performance (Flynn et al. 2010) or for the related purposes of generating competitive advantages (Mentzer et al. 2001). An ongoing challenge for supply chain members when maximising these desired benefits is managing the alignment of activities both within and between different supply chain

members (see 'horizontal integration' later on in this chapter) (Barratt 2004). In order for supply chain managers to organise their operations in a systematic and synergistic manner, a theory of SCM has been developed, and concerns itself with maximising:

> the systemic, strategic coordination of the traditional business functions and the tactics across business functions within a particular company and across businesses within the supply chain, for the purposes of improving the long-term performance of the individual companies and the supply chain as a whole (Mentzer et al. 2001, p. 18).

It is important to understand how the origins and development of SCM theory has implications for the integration of a not-for-profit organisation, with an emphasis on a social agenda, into the more sophisticated (e.g. 'ultimate') forms of supply chain mentioned above.

2.2.2 Emergence and Development of the Supply Chain Management Concept

Literature discussing the '…theory of distribution management that recognised the interrelated nature of organisational relationships' emerged as early as 1958 (Forester 1958, cited in Mentzer et al. 2001, p. 1); the modern concept of SCM came to the fore in 1982 when the term appeared in practitioner literature (Ellram & Cooper 2014). Consultants are credited with first identifying and promoting the idea that the logistical function connected with other *internal* organisational activities (e.g. the relationship between activities such as incoming with outgoing logistics), but also with external activities within other organisations altogether (Ellram & Cooper 2014). The academic pursuit of SCM began circa. 1990, when a theoretical distinction was drawn between the flows of physical goods and the flows of information in supply chains (Ellram & Cooper 2014). Increased interest in SCM during the 1990s saw growth in a broad-range of articles on the theory - from those dealing with particular logistical or marketing channel management issues to the supply chain as a holistic concept (see Ellram 1991; Beamon 1998; Lambert et al. 1998; Lummus & Vokurka 1999; Bowerscox et al. 1999; Mentzer et al. 2001; Fawcett & Magnan 2002). The increased interest in SCM, from both academics and consultants alike, is attributed to recognition of 'the benefits of collaborative

relationships within and beyond their own organization' (Lummus & Vokurka 1999, p. 1). Collaborative efforts were viewed as necessary because it was increasingly realised that companies could no longer compete effectively in isolation from their suppliers or other entities in the supply chain (Lummus & Vokurka 1999). The idea had emerged and was established that '…the real competition is not organisation against organisation, but supply chain against supply chain' (Mentzer et al. 2001, p. 17). The Supply Chain Organisation Reference (SCOR) model is the Supply Chain Council (SCC) 'industry standard' which describes the organisation's activities associated with all phases of satisfying a customer's demand (APICS SCOR 2016) (N.B: The SCC merged with the American Production and Inventory Control Society (APICS) in 2014). According to the APICS SCOR (developed in the 1990s), implementing SCM involved four stages: 'plan', 'source', 'make', and 'deliver'. In simplified terms, 'plan' refers to assessing and balancing the aggregate supply chain demand requirements with the supply chain's resources, and communicating a plan accordingly. 'Source' refers to procurement activities that meet forecast or actual demand across the chain. 'Make' refers to processes of transformation to finished products that meet the planned (or subsequent actual) demand. 'Deliver' refers to processes such as transportation and distribution of products to meet demand across the supply chain. By the mid-2000s, this had developed to include two more stages or sets of processes: 'return' and 'enable', which whilst not specified could presumably include the management and alignment of processes and activities with food banking activities including the collection and redistribution of surplus food stuffs.

The term 'return' refers to an increased interest in reverse logistics as an activity (i.e. sending materials 'backwards') not only for usually stated inventory (Fawcett & Magnan 2002) and cost control reasons (Rogers & Tibben-Lembke 2001) but also, as mentioned later, for sustainable supply chain management reasons. The term 'enable' refers to the process of managing a range of other issues and entities than previously considered, such as management

activities relating to supply chain network management and collaborative value creation (APICS SCC 2016a). Therefore, in order to get products and services through the supply chain, more strategic management knowledge was required, particularly as it related to managing issues with customer value and profitability implications (see APICS SCC 2016a). While the integration of a food bank into a food supply chain may be viewed simply as 'enabling' for the 'return' of surplus food, implementation is apparently more complex than first appears.

The question of how to effectively implement SCM practices had arisen, with some studies questioning whether SCM contradicted conventional managerial approaches (Fawcett & Magnan 2002). Also, Barratt (2001) pointed to the inherent difficulties associated with inter-organisational cooperation where trust between trading partners, a 'culture' of collaboration or mutuality with regard to sharing both risk and rewards, may be lacking. However, some of these difficulties with SCM implementation were deemed to be associated with what Mentzer et al. (2001) described as an individual firm's supply chain orientation (i.e. its philosophical predisposition toward SCM principles) rather than an inherent flaw of the SCM concept itself:

> Supply Chain Orientation is a management philosophy, and Supply Chain Management is the sum total of all the overt management actions undertaken to realize that philosophy (Mentzer et al. 2001, p. 11).

As such, whilst SCM may be considered a broad field of enquiry or, an amorphous meta-concept (Barratt 2004), it can be viewed as a process of supply chain integration, the achievement of which involves the difficult challenge of collaboration (Horvath 2001; Fawcett & Magnan 2002; Ellram & Cooper 2014), including with not-for-profit food banking organisations.

Collaboration can occur between internal organisational functions such as marketing and logistics, or be externally directed, and its applicability and success may be contingent upon the context of the situation (e.g. the particular market conditions) (see van Donk & van Doorne

2016). Barratt (2004) makes a distinction between 'vertical' and 'horizontal' supply chain integration; vertical integration involves the focal organisation and its relationship with upstream suppliers, and with downstream customers. Horizontal integration involves the alignment of focal organisation activities with that of other similar organisations in the industry, which can include competitors (Barratt 2004). Whilst vertical integration is more common in the food and grocery industries (Hingley et al. 2015), of particular interest to this study is the horizontal collaborations that cut across organisational boundaries. However, with regard to not-for-profits, these inter-organisational collaborative efforts, which are already challenging to implement, become more complicated. Some argue that the integration effort should not only be directed at increasing economic efficiencies but should also lead to higher levels of supply chain CSR (Borstrom et al. 2015) and environmental sustainability (van der Vorst et al. 2009; Ramanathan et al. 2014). Therefore, in summary, by this stage of SCM's theoretical development, there was a 'fairly wide agreement that companies really have networks of suppliers rather than "chains"' (Ellram & Cooper 2014, p. 17) and that collaborative value creation was considered central to the design of integrated supply chains. Furthermore, supply chain integration required managers to include the concerns and activities of a broader range of supply chain 'stakeholder' organisations who may not possess a conventional cost and profit focus. At this point, however, it is questionable to what extent to the literature is explicitly inclusive of the 'social' issues concerning a not-for-profit food bank with a dual social and environmental mission. These particular 'social' issues concerning the not-for-profit domain may be better examined with particular regard to the concepts of CSR and sustainability in the supply chain.

2.3 Social Responsibility and Sustainability in the Supply Chain

2.3.1 Strategies for Addressing Supply Chain Social Impacts

Since the 'post-welfare state' era and the rise of NGOs and not-for-profit organisations (as explained already in Chapter One), various pressures have come to bear on effective supply chain management, specifically in terms of delivering on the various social, ethical, and environmental expectations (Borstrom et al. 2015; van der Vorst et al. 2009). Put differently, supply chains have faced increased pressure to create social value alongside its economic value priorities. 'Social value' refers to value which accrues mainly to society, often through the agency of social organisations (Auserwald 2009; Mulgan 2010) (e.g. improved population health and nutrition services), but can also be produced by private sector companies (e.g. through new employment opportunities) (Auserwald 2009).

Such social value generation in the food and grocery industries can be seen through responses to the pressing social issue of better managing food waste (Bahadur et al. 2016) through collaborative efforts with food banking organisations. However, while a supermarket chain may wish to efficiently deal with food waste through the agency of a food bank, there are not only environmental but also social welfare stakeholders in food banking with food justice, health and welfare, and nutrition agendas. Therefore, in practice, multiple strategies may be available that need to be emphasised: (1) CSR, (2) environmental sustainability, and as explored in later section of this chapter, (3) shared value creation (see Coles 2012; SecondBite 2014; Woolworths Ltd 2011b, 2012, 2013 2015). (NB: in this study the names 'Coles' and 'Coles Supermarkets' are interchangeable.) The extent to which actual shared value creation strategies emerge and drive the process of supply chain integration, and specifically how this value creation occurs and is evidenced in food supply chains involving not-for-profits, represents an open question that can be more fully explored in the case of food banking.

2.3.2 CSR (and the Stakeholder View)

Whilst CSR itself has been variously defined (see Dahlsrud 2008), for the purposes of this thesis, CSR is viewed as the economic, legal and ethical obligations owed by organisations to society (Carroll 1991) or, the obligations owed to identified, salient stakeholder groups (Mitchell et al. 1997) such as those diverse interests represented by the broader food banking movement mentioned in the previous section. With particular regard to CSR in the food and grocery industries' supply chains there are a complex multitude of issues that can be identified (see Maloni & Brown 2006). In addressing these issues some CSR researchers highlight the economic 'obligations owed' to shareholders as paramount (Carroll 1991) while others emphasise the goal (while acknowledging the difficult managerial challenge) of pursuing the creation of value for a diverse range of salient stakeholder groups (Freeman 2010). Under the conditions found in the 'power-laden contentious environment' of the retail food and grocery industry (see Hingley et al. 2015), there have been a number of ethical issues around: (1) the maltreatment of suppliers (including fines being applied for 'unconscionable conduct') (ACCC 2014), and (2) the use of child labour relating to Asian seafood manufacture and importation (Danckert 2015). CSR is one response to managing such complex ethical issues through building supply chain relationships with social organisational stakeholders (Salamon 2012).

2.3.3 Stakeholder Collaborations

When conceptualised as the 'extended enterprise' (Sachs et al. 2002), a leading supply chain organisation appears more broadly concerned with external stakeholders than before, and (consistent with SCM) with horizontal value creating collaborations; the extended enterprise comprises:

> not only the firm's focal interactions with other *businesses*, but also its relationship with other stakeholders, both internal and external. [it]…is the nodal element in a network of stakeholders… that enhances its value creating potential (Sachs et al. 2002, p. 7).

The extended enterprise may have to collaborate with *multiple* external stakeholder groups including NGOs, governments and not-for-profit (i.e. food banking) organisations. One such form of collaboration that balances organisational objectives and dealing with stakeholder pressures (Ramathan et al. 2014) is the Multi-Stakeholder Collaboration (MSC). A food and grocery supply chain leader that collaborates with a not-for-profit food bank with a dual social and environmental mission in order to better manage the stakeholder issue of food waste in food supply chains could be viewed as an example of an MSC.

2.3.3.1 Multi-Stakeholder Collaboration

MSC's are proposed as one means of responding to, and integrating, the complexity of stakeholder issues; Roloff (2008) argues, from a stakeholder view, that companies:

> practise two different types of stakeholder management: they focus on their organization's welfare (organization-focussed stakeholder management) or on an issue that affects their relationship with other societal groups and organizations (issue-focussed stakeholder management)

The reason why 'issue-focussed stakeholder management' is more common is because it enables corporations to address complex problems and challenges in cooperation with, for example, environmental NGO stakeholders (Roloff 2008). Waddell (2000) summarised two main roles for NGOs in organisational strategy: 'intermediary' and 'transformative'. The term 'intermediary',

> means linking the economic and production-oriented world of business with the social and value-generating one of civil society...For the NGO communities, when this intermediary role works it means that they can access business resources in a way that is appropriate for them. (Waddell 2000, p. 17).

The term 'transformative' means:

> [if] community concerns and viewpoints are brought meaningfully inside the corporation they are generating new products, delivery systems, and business strategies (Waddell 2000, p. 17).

Therefore, whether playing an intermediary or transformative role, the resources of an NGO or a not-for-profit food bank can be harnessed by an organisation in order to deal with 'complex

ethical issues' that can arise within a for-profit supply chain (Roloff 2008). In doing so, a given supply chain may gain competitive advantages over another supply chain (Waddell 2000) and receive benefits such as 'reputational capital' (Salamon 2012). For example, Airike et al. (2016) examined how, in the absence of legislation, complex supply chain issues (in the case of the minerals industries, however) could be better managed through MSCs; the specific motives of large companies for entering into MSCs within supply chains included: 'Collaborative advantage' (i.e. overcoming complex challenges collectively); 'Altruistic values' (i.e. wanting to do the right thing); 'Self-interest' (i.e. current and future organisational benefits) (refer to CSV later on in the chapter); and 'External pressures' (i.e. lobbying from NGOs) (Airike et al. 2016). Any combination of these motivations could apply to the food and grocery supply chain members in Australia involved in inter-sectoral collaborations, specifically those involved with the not-for-profit food banking sector (see Coles 2012; Woolworths Ltd 2015). It is, therefore, clear that MSCs (or 'inter-sectoral collaborations') can occur among diversely different supply chain entities, and that these collaborations can provide strategic advantages to the lead organisation, and to the NGO or not-for-profit involved. However, with particular regard to the food industries and to the parlous state of rising levels of food waste in food supply chains (Parfitt et al. 2010), the issues around the actual environmental sustainability *outcomes* of such arrangements is another matter altogether.

2.3.4 Sustainable Supply Chain Management

In food and grocery supply chains, there is an 'intrinsic focus on product quality' and 'demand for environmental sustainability' (van der Vorst et al. 2009, p. 6611); supply chain design (i.e. integration) in this context:

> should not only be aimed at improving logistics performance, but also at the preservation of food quality and environmental sustainability (van der Vorst et al. 2009, p. 6617).

With regard to food and grocery supply chains emphasising food waste management in their food banking collaborative efforts, the literature which addresses such concerns about environmental sustainability in supply chains, including a concern with achieving more integrated supply chains through value adding collaborations, is the Sustainable Supply Chain Management (SSCM) literature.

The SSCM field has grown considerably in recent years (Pagell & Shevchenko 2014) - partly in response to the social pressures placed by NGOs, governments and consumers upon supply chain managers (Bostrom et al. 2015). As a result of organisations and supply chains responding to such stakeholder pressure, different forms of supply chain relationships emerged, including with non-supply chain members as mentioned above; the term 'supply chain community' signifies this development (Ellram & Cooper 2014). Notwithstanding the different definitions available (see Ahi & Searcy 2013), the SSCM literature is further concerned with the importance of collaborative, value-adding initiatives for improving the sustainability performance of the supply chain community (i.e. involving the diversity of food banking's social and environmental stakeholders mentioned above). However, similar to CSR strategies for addressing supply chain impacts, SSCM can be more or less cost and profit (i.e. shareholder) focussed and (more or less) horizontally integrated. The extent to which responses to sustainability issues such as addressing rising levels of food waste (Parfitt et al. 2010) are integrated across the supply chain community appears to depend upon the manner of SSCM implementation (Winter & Knemeyer 2013; Pagell & Shevchenko 2014). That is, different SSCM strategies could result in the delivery of different types of value (i.e. more or less economic, social, and environmental value over time). These different strategies have implications for the strategies employed by food banks and, as a result, for the effectiveness of any resulting food banking collaborations for generating different types of shared value, explained as follows.

2.3.4.1 Resource Productivity Strategies

Carter and Rogers (2008) propose an SSCM strategy of not privileging the social and/or environmental over the economic bottom-line in order to avoid undue risks and costs being imposed on individual companies. Carter and Rogers (2008, p. 371) cite evidence of the benefits of an apparently more prudent strategy; advising companies to pick the 'low-hanging fruit' (i.e. opportunities that are more readily available), for example:

> Reduced costs, shorter lead times, and better product quality associated with the implementation of ISO 14000 standards.

Practitioner literature tends to view SSCM in similar cost and profit terms ('where lean production and sustainability are seen as synonymous' (APICS 2011, p. 11), with an emphasis on the economic bottom line expressed through the resource productivity concept:

> Supply chain and operations management professionals are increasingly called on to reduce costs, demands on resources, and waste; while increasing the reuse of existing assets, and enabling lean operations. Employing sustainable practices is critical to meeting these business needs (APICS SCC Sustainability 2016, p. 1).

This emphasis on resource productivity in part explains why supermarket chains would be inclined to invest in waste reduction programs, including developing relationships with the not-for-profit food banking sector to address such waste issues. However, with regard to the effectiveness of such collaborations, some food banking sector stakeholders see food waste in global food supply chains as a worsening, intractable issue (along with the related issues of landfill capacity and rising levels of greenhouse gas emissions) (Parfitt et al. 2010; Bahadur et al. 2016). For them, more integrative, holistic than 'piecemeal' effort on environmental activities is needed (as follows).

2.3.4.2 Integrative Sustainability Strategies

To more effectively address complex or intractable supply chain social impact issues, Winter and Knemeyer (2013) call for *integrating* sustainability with, not just adding it to the SCM concept; they assert that:

> the existing literature is primarily focused on individual sustainability and supply chain dimensions rather than taking a more integrated approach (Winter & Knemeyer 2013, p. 18).

Consistent with the integrative SSCM view, Pagell and Shevchenko (2014) call for an increase in the level of analysis from individual or marginal responses to the level of the whole supply chain. Pagell and Shevchenko (2014) posed the question as to why research in sustainable supply chain management should have no future and advocate a shift, from measuring marginal reductions in harmful impacts to stakeholder inclusive outcomes that can be measured through the creation of social value:

> A change in the level of analysis would give more space for research that included stakeholders such as customers, regulators, and communities as researchers would be measuring the impact (positive or negative) of the creation of value (Pagell & Shevchenko 2014, p. 50).

One expression of integrated SSCM and its measurement in terms of the creation of value is the 'closed loop' supply chain. In this study, 'closing the loop' simply refers to the *recapture* of value throughout the product life-cycle by, for example, recycling food waste and its packaging back into food supply chains (Parfitt et al. 2010; Rogers & Tibben-Lembke 2001).

2.3.4.3 Implementation Realities in Food and Grocery Supply Chains

Given the strong focus upon costs and profit in SCM and the nature of food and grocery supply chains (Hingley et al. 2015), the actual implementation of 'Integrated SSCM' (e.g. closed loop food and grocery supply chains) potentially imposes undue costs on individual organisations, especially in the short-term (Esty & Porter 1998). Therefore, the less far-reaching resource productivity strategy or 'cost and risk' sustainability strategy (mentioned above) is likely to be

the more prevalent strategy when it comes to the use of a food bank for managing sustainability issues in a food and grocery supply chain (see Hart & Milstein 2003).

However, there is an example in the literature involving a not-for-profit organisation participating in a for-profit, partially closed-loop supply chain. Kumar and Malegreant (2006) cite the advantages available to supply chain members of using a not-for-profit to return used goods to the manufacturer. The 'eco-non-profit' collected used shoes for return to Nike for recycling, and this arrangement was proposed as having cost and reputational advantages for Nike (Kumar & Malegreant 2006). Nonetheless, with regard to the different CSR and sustainability strategies discussed, that may or may not effectively integrate not-for-profits, there is another lack in the literature. According to Burger, Frecè, Scherrer, and Daub (2014, p. 8345):

> Whereas there is a broad body of literature on corporate sustainability and many related on-going activities, there is little research and little activity in the field of sustainability management of Non-profit Organizations.

Therefore, there is not only the issue of the differently portrayed lead organisation strategy (and its impacts upon a societal issue and collaborating organisation), but also issue of the sustainability management of the collaborating not-for-profit organisations to consider.

Therefore, the potentially different strategies employed (e.g. resource productivity versus fuller integration) and the resulting management issues from the not-for-profit organisation's viewpoint within 'supply chain communities' is a potentially complex set of arrangements. Given the realities outlined about a cost and profit focus under SCM, which manifests itself under SSCM largely as a resource productivity strategy, the challenge is to implement efficient supply chain integration strategies (i.e. collaborations) that still attempt to capture social value. Such approaches have been considered under the rubric of 'Strategic CSR for Competitive Advantage' (Porter & Kramer 2006).

2.3.5 Strategic CSR for Competitive Advantage

A theory that links CSR strategy with selecting and addressing the appropriate social value generation opportunities within the supply chain is 'Strategic CSR for Competitive Advantage' (or 'Strategic CSR') (Porter & Kramer 2006). 'Strategic CSR' is proposed as an alternative approach to, and a critique of, multiple-stakeholder inclusive CSR (e.g. under Freeman 2010), where organisations respond unrealistically to a broad range of stakeholder issues (Porter & Kramer 2006). From this view of CSR - which could be described as a more instrumental and lead organisation-centric view - emerged a framework that characterised and contrasted a previously 'generic' (i.e. weakly targeted) CSR with new 'Strategic CSR' (Porter & Kramer 2006).

Under 'Strategic CSR', the relative power of a stakeholder group does not necessarily signify the importance of the issue it agitates for - either to the organisation, the supply chain or to stakeholders (to paraphrase Porter & Kramer 2006). Instead, managers must 'internally generate' an area of social concern (ideally ignoring any other external pressures or requests for philanthropy), and leverage the organisation's specific resources and capabilities to address only these internally generated social agendas. For example, a supply chain social impact issue (e.g. food waste) need not automatically be addressed by an organisation in an ad-hoc manner but, rather, should be voluntarily pursued by a (food) organisation that sees a strategic 'fit' (e.g. in collaboration with a food bank) from which value and competitive advantage can be generated (Porter & Kramer 2006). Presumably, and as noted earlier, a food bank organisation would also draw resources from these arrangements in a manner suitable to its social mission and stakeholder needs. However, there is still the question of the nature of the integration from the not-for-profit viewpoint or, how the *not*-for-profit's activities align with the *for*-profit supply chain's activities (as proposed in SCM), and how these activities generate social value

both at the level of the supply chain and to society through the agency of the food bank collaboration.

In summary of the literature that has been presented so far in this chapter about supply chain integration, there appears to be: (1) accounts of the strategic responses of individual organisations *within* the supply chain, including an understandable cost and profit focus, where CSR or SSCM are implemented more vertically (i.e. the 'cost and profit' strategy), or (2) the appearance of a supply chain as a complex *system* requiring effective relationship management which, among other things, is essential to implementing more far-reaching, horizontal, social value creating integration (thus the illustrative example given of a 'closed-loop' supply chain). Therefore, what still needs reconciling is: (1) the realities of the actual strategy considerations of individual organisations (i.e. the value chain, resource productivity and competitive advantage) (Porter 2008), with (2) a diversity of higher-level 'social' issues facing not just companies but also whole competing supply chains, and (3) a corresponding focus on social value generating activities (i.e. involving the integration of not-for-profit charities with a social mission), in this case, a food bank into a food and grocery supply chain. The manner in which both a leading for-profit supply chain organisation and a not-for-profit charitable organisation with a social mission, could deliver the improved social conditions sought (i.e. produce the type of social value needed in given case), and gain a competitive advantage (e.g. one based on cost), could be explored through the lens of Creating Shared Value (CSV) (Porter & Kramer 2011). CSV attempts to address apparently dichotomous private sector organisation and societal level values and goals and, instead, emphasises synergetic economic and social value creation (Porter & Kramer 2011).

2.4 Integrating Food Banking Activities through Creating Shared Value

2.4.1 Definition and Overview of the Creating Shared Value Concept

In theory, according to CSV, both for-profit and not-for-profit organisations that adopt CSV-like strategies in order to enter and maintain a supply chain collaboration should be able to address societal level issues while growing their 'businesses'. This apparent reality will now be explained; firstly by providing a definition and overview of the CSV concept.

CSV is defined by Porter and Kramer (2011, p. 66) as:

> policies and operating practices that enhance the competitiveness of a company while simultaneously advancing the economic and social conditions in the communities in which it operates. Shared value creation focuses on identifying and expanding the connections between societal and economic progress.

CSV proposes that economic value may accrue to a given (usually cited in the literature as a private organisation, for example, a retail food supermarket chain) while, at the same time, increasing the social and environmental benefits that flow to the local communities in which that organisation operates. However, CSV:

> is not philanthropy but self-interested behavior to create economic value by creating societal value (Porter & Kramer 2011, p. 77).

CSV can be pursued and can occur at three different levels, as a result of an organisation: (1) redefining products and markets (or servicing the so-called 'bottom of the pyramid'), (2) redefining productivity in the value chain (e.g. for improved resource efficiencies), and (3) enabling local cluster development (e.g. technology parks) (Porter & Kramer 2011). Regardless of the level at which CSV occurs, it is proposed as a catalyst for the 'next evolution in capitalism'; whilst not containing all of the answers to social problems, CSV has the advantage of being better able to restore public trust in business operations (Porter& Kramer 2011). At one level of analysis, CSV proposes that an organisation may benefit in the shorter-term from outsourcing, driving down wages and the prices paid to suppliers, and considering itself as a

global rather than locally embedded organisation. However, in doing so, ultimately that organisation may lose opportunities for creating social value (as claimed under CSV), especially at the local level (Porter & Kramer 2011). According to CSV, the more conventionally apparent benefits from, for example, outsourcing are actually counterproductive to an organisation attaining sustained 'profits with a purpose' and it should instead consider paying higher not lower prices to suppliers in order to attain higher levels of loyalty and product quality (Porter & Kramer 2011). At another level of analysis (e.g. at the level of 'Redefining productivity in the value chain'), CSV involves reconfiguring an organisation's value chain to capture, for example, resource productivity opportunities and competitive advantages. CSV can also be applied in the stakeholder management context (see 'Strategic CSR' above). In the case of the food and grocery industries, supply chain activities (e.g. inbound and outbound logistics) may be reconfigured in order to address food waste issues, for example, by the alignment of food organisation activities with new food banking activities, and vice versa, within the supply chain (see Figure 2.1 further below).

However, with regard to effective supply chain integration, the questions arise of how organisational-level activities for productivity improvements impact or are impacted by the strategic responses of the collaborating not-for-profit organisation and, then, how the resulting type of shared value actually flows throughout the supply chain and then on to society (in this case, through the agency of a not-for-profit food bank). Such questions are also central to the concerns of the critics of CSV.

2.4.2 Critique of CSV

Perhaps mainly due to the breadth of the claims made in proposing the benefits of CSV (e.g. the reformation of capitalism; the rediscovery of public trust in business and so on) there are some rather negative responses to CSV. At the same time, even some of the stronger critics of

CSV find its popularity and appeal to practitioners difficult to deny (e.g. Crane et al. 2014, Beschorner 2013).

To deal only briefly with some broader-ranging academic criticisms of CSV before coming to those that concern the discussion of particular food supply chain collaborations and not-for-profit organisations, these can be characterised for present purposes as unoriginality, ignoring the extant CSR and sustainability literature, and oversimplifying the complex social issues which CSV is supposed to be addressing.

CSV is accused of being unoriginal because what passes for CSV is already referred to by other authors in a range of literatures, for example stakeholder management and 'bottom of the pyramid' (Crane et al. 2014). With regard to linking stakeholders with business strategy, Hart and Milstein (2003) had already developed the idea of creating sustainable value (see more on this below). The idea in CSV that businesses, NGOs and governments should work together in 'blended organisations' is one of the taken-for-granted assumptions articulated in the social innovation literature (Crane et al. 2014). See, for example, the work of Phills et al. (2008) about the solutions to social problems necessarily involving the not-for-profit, public and private sectors. So too has the idea been promoted that business can be a significant source and sometimes superior generator of 'social value' creation than the other sectors (Auserwald 2009).

The authors of CSV are not only accused of failing to acknowledge extant concepts (as per the above points) but also of misunderstanding and mischaracterising CSR literature for the purposes of elevating CSV as a theory; for example, Beschorner (2013) labels CSV as a 'one trick pony' approach. He asserts that CSV adopts a view of CSR which is conflated with philanthropy, and not the modern practice of CSR and, in this light, CSV is then proposed as an original and ground breaking idea compared with a poorly represented version of CSR

contained in CSV (i.e. a ‘straw man’ argument). Worse still, the CSV authors are accused of reducing complex moral questions to business imperatives:

> Porter and Kramer understand social needs not as ethically important ends, but rather as (economically smart) means for successful companies (2013, p. 109).

Instead, moral questions should be posed such as ‘what are our fundamental values and what business strategies emerge out of them?’ (Beschorner 2013, p. 110).

In response to the criticisms about acknowledging extant concepts Porter and Kramer state that the type of practitioner journals in which CSV articles appear do not permit lengthy referencing and footnotes for acknowledging existing literature (Crane et al. 2014). Moreover, CSV is defended by its authors as a superior concept to both corporate sustainability and CSR because apparently both business groups and the public are cynical and tired of existing approaches to addressing the social impacts of business (Crane et al. 2014). According to the CSV proponents, CSR is an idealistic concept, promising much but actually delivering little in practical terms. In supposed contrast, CSV seeks to harness the power of (rather than idealistically change) the profit seeking, self-interested, and competitive behaviours of businesses (Crane et al. 2014).

Aside from its popularity, the other strengths of CSV are supposed to be the linking of business strategy with social goals and the potential of CSV to bring together ‘disconnected areas of research and practice’ (Crane et al. 2014). These potential strengths, however, still do not convince the critics that CSV could supersede CSR, corporate sustainability and other concepts; including the previously discussed precursor to CSV, ‘Strategic CSR for Competitive Advantage’, which had already linked business strategy to social goals and appears no less relevant given the emergence of CSV (Crane et al. 2014).

Whether or not the CSV authors are unoriginal or misrepresent extant CSR literature (and so on), there are some particular issues that relate directly to the supply chain theory issues arising

in this chapter, which stem from the above broad critique of CSV. These issues, explained as follows, relate to 1) reductionism: broader social issues around supply chain sustainability simply become resource efficiency issues, and 2) the linking of organisational level initiatives (e.g. food bank collaborative activities) with actual reductions in overall social impacts (e.g. measurable reductions in food waste within 'supply chain communities').

2.4.3 CSV and Supply Chain Sustainability

Similar to Beschorner on CSR (mentioned in the previous section), Elkington (2015) finds that sustainability too has been mischaracterised under CSV. While in agreement with Porter and Kramer about the parlous state of the current approaches to dealing with intractable social problems (such as rising levels of food waste in food supply chains), Porter and Kramer's faith in capitalism as 'the answer', and their willingness to reduce sustainability to resource efficiency in order to declare it superseded, is unacceptable. For Elkington (2015) the problem with CSV is that:

> If you focus on the narrow commercial interests of particular companies, then it makes sense to encourage CEOs and others to cherry-pick their priority issues from a menu of options. But what if, unlike items on a restaurant menu, the challenges are all symptoms of the systemic dysfunction of modern-day capitalism?

Elkington turns the argument around by declaring that 'sustainability could be the ultimate form of shared value.' (Eelkington, 2015). In any case, rather than engage with fixing 'the systemic dysfunction of modern-day capitalism' (from the above quotation), the accusation that CSV reduces sustainability to resource efficiencies is now discussed with regard to redefining productivity in the value chain as a means of addressing social issues in supply chains (after this, see how CSV specifically relates to food banking in Figure 2.1 further on below).

'Redefining productivity in the value chain' relates to the often cited examples of multinational corporations (MNCs) and their attainment of resource efficiencies under CSV that are supposed

to result in social progress. For example, a business may achieve an energy efficiency gain and a resulting measure such as ‘lower energy costs’ is used as an indicator of social progress. The logic is that if the business unit invests in energy reduction programs to increase its productivity, then society will also benefit (Porter et al. 2011). While this assumption is consistent with the logic of CSV: privileging the business unit as the central point of reference and with the notion that CSV creates business wealth through identifying social impacts by means of an internally driven social agenda, and linking the addressing of these social impacts to a business’s strategy, it still remains unclear in the above example (given the sections that follow) how lower energy costs automatically leads to sustained social (e.g. environmental) benefits in the supply chain overall.

By comparison, in the extant literature inclusive of the corporate sustainability concept that is rebutted by CSV, the natural resource-based view of business strategy for competitive advantage (Hart 1995), including the concept of ‘beyond greening’ (Hart 2008), emphasises a concern with engaging a broad (including less economically fortunate) range of stakeholders for the creation of shareholder value. With regard to ‘creating sustainable value’, Hart and Milstein (2003, p. 56) define a sustainable enterprise as one that:

> contributes to sustainable development by delivering simultaneously economic, social, and environmental benefits - the so-called triple bottom line

Such an organisation should be aware of the four drivers of sustainability (increasing industrialisation and more waste; proliferation of NGO stakeholders; new technologies; and globalisation factors such as inequality) and the complexities involved, especially when collaborating with not-for-profits with social agendas that serve the interests of broad-ranging NGO groups (e.g. food waste, social welfare agendas and so on).

In this context it is less clear how CSV relates to the goal of achieving sustainable outcomes when compared with sustainable value creation. In other words, having dispensed with CSR

and corporate sustainability as concepts in CSV, it is less clearly articulated what sustainable organisations are and how they contribute to sustainable development and to solving intractable social issues in supply chains in the longer-run. Rather than just listing the various examples of the apparent social benefits of a given resource efficiency initiative (e.g. 'less food waste'), it would be expected that, given the broad claims in CSV, some evidence of their actual 'social effectiveness' (i.e. outcomes viewed as net contributions to society through social value generation) would be needed.

2.4.3.1 Measuring Social Value and Shared Value

Currently under CSV the identification of social agendas preferred by business and the resulting measurement of shared value (as follows) is the proxy for its actual social effectiveness. For example, at the level of redefining productivity in the value chain, Intercontinental Hotels Group (IHG) 'allow' hotel guests to use less water and energy. A pilot study resulted in the measurement of other different options and the CSV authors conclude that while 'solar', for example, is popular with the public, IHG proceeded with the (internally driven) options that created the most shared value (e.g. opted for reducing water usage) based on the indicator of 'returns to IHG' (Porter et al. 2011). As a result, the savings for IHG *are* the measure of CSV which in turn is the measure for social progress, albeit from a private sector business unit, rather than explicit not-for-profit or whole of supply chain or societal perspective.

By comparison with CSV, central concerns with value creation in the social value literature are: the identification of salient issues, 'what the *outcome* should be' and the measurement of social value *outcomes* (that resulted from addressing the salient issues being addressed) (Mulgan 2010). To emphasise problems with the measurement of social value, apparently these stem from the perception that the concept is 'objective, fixed and stable' (Mulgan 2010, p. 38) whereas Mulgan identifies that:

> social value is not an objective fact. Instead, it emerges from the interaction of supply and demand, and therefore may change across time, people, places and situations. (2010, p. 40)

As a result of this dynamic, the validity of the issues and the metrics used to assess the type and amount of social or shared value produced remains more controversial than appears under CSV. With particular regard to technical measurement issues, for example, there are '…hundreds of competing tools…' (Mulgan 2010, p. 40) in various use by governments, NGOs and private sector social programs (Mulgan 2010) all of which stakeholders could be present in any given social agenda (e.g. food banking initiatives) found within supply chains. In CSV, the outcomes are viewed primarily from a private sector vantage point with social outcomes reliant upon market mechanisms (Porter & Kramer 2011).

2.4.4 CSV and Supply Chain Integration

Porter and Kramer (2011) emphasise the role of self-interest and the market place (Beschorner 2013) as the coordinating mechanism that ensures that the individual organisational level CSV actions (e.g. resource efficiencies) result in both business improvements and more widespread supply chain and social level benefits:

> If all companies individually pursued shared value connected to their particular businesses, society's interests overall would be served… (Porter & Kramer 2011, p. 77).

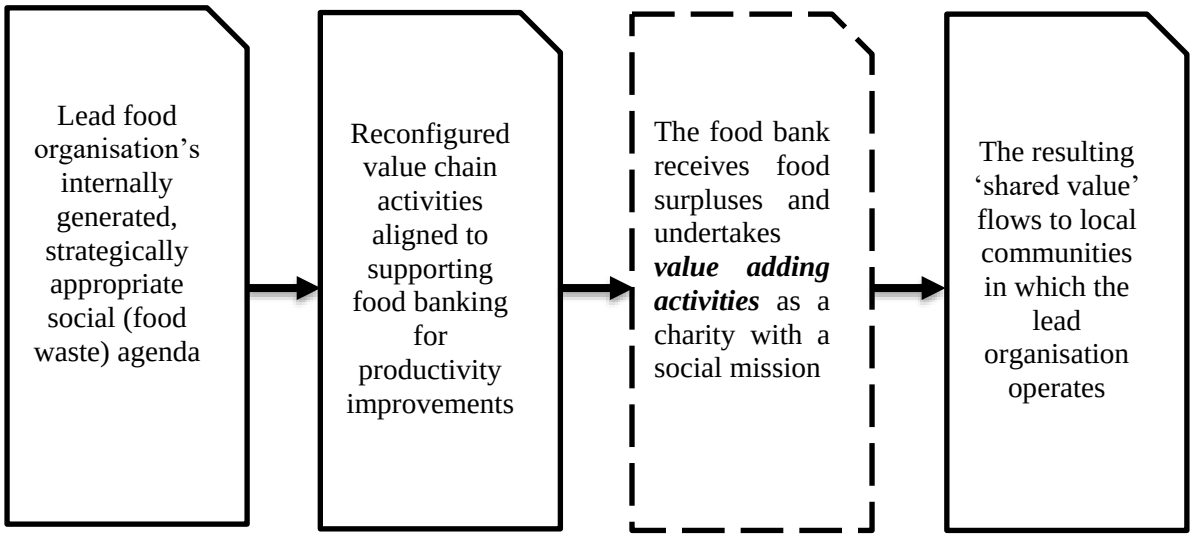
However, despite the emphasis on individual organisational units, Porter and Kramer (2011) state that an affirmative social agenda should be pursued by organisations collectively where an industry is affected by common issues. What is needed, say proponents of CSV, is 'new and heightened forms of collaboration', that cut across for-profit and not-for-profit and the private and public domains and between major organisational competitors (Porter & Kramer 2011, p. 73). However, despite the stated need for these new forms of organisations, currently CSV looks almost exclusively at shared value outcomes through the lens of large private sector (particularly MNC) organisations. Whilst Porter and Kramer (2011) state that it does not matter

what types of organisations created the value, little attention is given to not-for-profit-sector organisations which potentially have a different set of concerns and priorities than the leading for-profit organisation conventionally described in the SCM and CSV literature. Also, whilst many successful examples of CSV are given, it remains unclear how CSV-like processes emerge in a not-for-profit context and, notwithstanding the assumed benefits for the lead organisation, affect a not-for-profit charity with a socially-based agenda. To address these concerns about the details of CSV, as it is applied to this study, the next section first describes how CSV apparently operates in order to show where the *not*-for-profit is currently situated in relation to the for-profit organisation, which then leads to stating the specific research questions.

2.4.5 CSV Process and Outcomes

According to CSV, from a leading private sector food and grocery retailer perspective, the following features are apparently present: (1) a lead organisation's internally generated social agenda (i.e. food waste reduction), (2) organisational value chains reconfigured accordingly (i.e. alignment with food banking activities), (3) resource productivity improvements, and (4) measurable benefits flowing to the local communities in which the food organisation and food bank operates (i.e. shared value creation). In summary, the following diagram presents a representation of a CSV process model.

Figure 2.1 CSV as a collaborative response to societal issues in the supply chain



However, accepting that the above CSV-like conditions operate in a given food and grocery supply chain, the third stage (i.e. represented by the dotted lines in Figure 2.1 above) remains unexplored territory. Whilst it is apparent from this chapter's discussion why a *for*-profit supply chain would collaborate with and ultimately integrate a *not*-for-profit organisation, the details of the integration process from the not-for-profit point of view, including its (1) different strategic priorities, (2) nature and type of value creating activities, and (3) the issues which arise in both supply chain theory and practice, remains largely unknown.

2.5 Research Questions

2.5.1 Specific Research Questions

Given the discussion above, the Specific Research Questions (RQs) to be addressed in this thesis are**:**

RQ1: What strategic priorities are evident for a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain?

RQ2: What types of shared value is perceived as strategically important by the managers of a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain?

2.5.2 Exploring Supply Chain Value-added through a CSV Lens

Food waste remains a resource efficiency and reputational issue for: (1) major food and grocery retailers (e.g. Coles Supermarkets and Woolworths Ltd in Australia), (2) an important contemporary social issue (e.g. for government's managing greenhouse gas emissions issues and landfill facilities), and (3) a source of shared or social value generation which is especially important to the growth of the not-for-profit food banking sector in Australia. Managing the operational realities of rising levels of food waste in food supply chains (with a cost and profit focus), and the integration of a not-for-profit food banking organisation's activities into such a supply chain, tends to affirm the importance of CSV in the resulting for-profit and not-for-profit collaborative arrangements. However, as noted in Chapter One, food banks have not been studied in this regard; and, as noted in this chapter, understanding the critical elements of the not-for-profit integration processes and how they occur is important to an improved understanding of supply chain theory; in particular, an improved understanding of how intractable supply chain social issues may or may not be effectively addressed by a for-profit and not-for-profit collaboration operating under CSV-like conditions.

2.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter outlined the supply chain concept and the importance of value creating, inter-organisational collaborative efforts toward supply chain integration that are critical to achieving more efficient and competitive supply chains. The chapter then explained how issues in the external environment, such as pressures from stakeholder groups, may call for inter-sectoral value-adding collaborative efforts, inclusive of stakeholder concerns. The process of actually dealing with social impact issues *whilst* creating value to realise opportunities for both

organisation and society was viewed through the lens of CSV. As a result, the specific research questions were presented. The next chapter states how the research questions will be addressed by adopting the case study method as a research strategy to explore the actual integration of a not-for-profit organisation into a for-profit supply chain.

Chapter Three

3.0 Method

3.1 Chapter Objectives

This chapter's objectives are four-fold. Firstly, the chapter will provide a justification for the research paradigm in which the study is located, the realism paradigm. Secondly, it will describe and explain the choice and implementation of the quasi-longitudinal single-embedded qualitative case study as a research strategy (Yin 2009). Thirdly, the qualitative methods that were applied to addressing the research issues are described and any issues that were encountered in doing so are explained. Lastly, the data analysis and criteria for judging the quality of the case study research undertaken are discussed.

3.2 Research Paradigms

3.2.1 Justification of the Research Paradigm

This section discusses this study's research paradigm. For the purposes of this explanation (which is not a philosophical discourse in its own right), the main paradigms, as distilled by Guba and Lincoln (1994), and employed in much business research are: positivism, critical theory, constructivism and the realism paradigm. The following table highlights the elements of these paradigms, including the nature of 'reality', and the 'common methodology' of the case study employed in the realism paradigm.

Table 3.1 Elements of the four research paradigms

	Paradigm			
Element	**Positivism**	**Critical theory**	**Constructivism**	**Realism**
Ontology	Reality is real and apprehensible	"Virtual" reality shaped by social, economic, ethnic, political, cultural, and gender values, crystallised over time	Multiple local and specific "constructed" realities	Reality is "real" but only imperfectly and probabilistically apprehensible.
Epistemology	*objectivist:* Findings are 'true'	*subjectivist*: value Mediated findings	*subjectivist:* Created findings	*modified objectivist*: Findings probably 'true'
Common methodologies	*experiments/ surveys:* Verification of hypotheses: chiefly quantitative methods	*dialogic/dialectical:* Researcher is a "transformative intellectual" who changes the social world within which participants live	*hermeneutical/ dialectical*: Researcher is a "passionate participant" within the world being investigated	*case studies/convergent interviewing:* Triangulation, interpretation of research issues by qualitative and by some quantitative methods such as structural equation modelling

Source: Healy & Perry (2000)

With regard to the approach taken to this study, studies of food banking located in other nations have tended to find that, for example, 'surplus food' is a socially constructed concept (Alexander & Smaje 2008) and the 'logics' of food redistribution mirrors broader issues of power, inequality (and so on) in society generally (Midgley 2014). The findings of such studies are critically insightful and highlights that there is something fundamentally interesting about food banking that needs to be further explored. As such, these studies may help to develop a better understanding of the issues (how food waste is characterised at different times for different social purposes) but it does not help to develop a more in-depth understanding that could lead to a positive agenda toward realistic solutions to actual surplus food management issues. Under both of the above social constructionist and critical views (respectively), the

issues associated with food banking (and many of these are not in dispute) are further highlighted and restated as a part of a more idealistic than practical agenda for broader social change (e.g. following the work of Riches 2002, 2011 and Poppendieck 1994, 1998). While this may be a valid approach to take, it leaves the 'here and now' of the institutionalised nature of food banking, and the management of the undisputed rising levels of food surpluses (Parfitt et al. 2010) under CSV-like conditions, to deal with in an Australian context.

This study aims to contribute to a realistic understanding of the issues in an Australian context. This will provide a basis upon which further studies may be conducted (regardless of which paradigms are subsequently employed) and will contribute to an improved understanding of actual Australian food banking practices under apparent CSV-like conditions. As a result of the stance taken in this study (and in the light of the other possible stances that could be taken, as summarised in Table 3.1), the realism paradigm is employed along with the case study as a research strategy – the details of which are explained in the rest of this chapter.

3.3 The Quasi-Longitudinal Single Case Study as a Research Strategy

3.3.1 Justification of the Case Study as an Overall Research Strategy

To investigate the research issues, that were raised in the background chapters for this study, within a real-world context, a theoretically informed, multiple-method qualitative case study strategy is used. Yin (2009, p. 18) defines the case study as a research strategy as follows: 'First, the technical definition begins with the scope of the case study': A case study is an empirical inquiry that:

> investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.

This scoping statement reflects the nature of the present study as will be explained throughout this chapter. Following from the above, the technical features of the case strategy relating to data collection are as follows:

> [the case study] copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as a result relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis (Yin 2009, p. 18).

As such, the justification for the selection of the case study method follows. In the following table, three criteria for selection are applied to five different methods (experiment, survey, archival analysis, history and case study). Three conditions were present before the case study was selected (ahead of alternative approaches, for example the survey, as mentioned below).

Table 3.2 Variables that decide when to use the case study as a method

Method	Form of research questions	Requires control of behavioural events?	Focuses on contemporary events?
Experiment	How, why?	Yes	Yes
Survey	Who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes
Archival analysis	Who, what, where, how many, how much?	No	Yes/no
History	How, why?	No	No
Case study	**How, why?**	**No**	**Yes**

Source: Yin (2009, p. 8)

There were 'how' and 'why' (and not 'how many') questions; there was no control over behavioural events (this is not grounded theory or action research); and while there are recent historical events being researched, the focus is on contemporary events (Yin 2009). With regard to Table 3.2 above (third row) and the survey method, this was rejected as a method because of what was learned during the literature review process and the reasons implied by the ultimate use of the case study. This was due to: (1) the number of possible variables (there were more of these more than data points), (2) the relatively unknown and understudied nature of food banking in Australia, and (3) the need to first describe and explore and better understand the

concepts and issues in their real-world context (in Australia). The theoretical justification for the single-case design in this case study is stated in the literature.

3.3.2 Justification of a Single-Embedded Case Study Design

According to the case study research literature, there is no set number of cases recommended for studies undertaken within the realism paradigm (Perry 1998) and this study adopted a single-embedded case design that emphasised the quality of the sample case that was selected (Patton 2002) (see selection of the case further on below).

Stake (2005) identifies three broad types of case study: single, intrinsic and collective, whereas Yin (2009) draws his main distinction between single-case and multiple case-design studies. The single case design was 'eminently justifiable under certain conditions' (Yin 2009, pp. 47-50). These conditions were that: the case is (1) a critical test, for example of a theory, or (2) is extreme or rare, or (3) is representative or typical, or (4) is revelatory, for example, previously inaccessible or, is (5) longitudinal, for example studied at two different points in time (Yin 2009) (refer to the section below on this further design choice). In this case there was a unique opportunity to study a single food banking organisation in–depth over a period of time, with regard to the identified broader issues identified in the literature reviews, but attention needed to be paid to some potential draw backs noted in the literature.

Single-case designs may be *holistic* (a single unit of analysis) or *embedded* (containing multiple units of analysis: see more below). Both types of single-case designs are 'eminently justifiable' but also contain their advantages and disadvantages or strengths and weaknesses (Yin 2009). For example, while multiple case-design may have the potential for drawing more powerful conclusions it may be expensive, difficult and time consuming to undertake (especially for student researchers) (Yin 2009). On the other hand, while a single case study may be easier to

manage in principle, there are still potential issues such as leaving the researcher vulnerable with all their 'eggs in one basket' (Yin 2009). Although contact was established with all four food banking organisations of interest to this study (see case selection further below), and cooperation was gained from three, it was at a later point in time an issue that a single case-design could have left the researcher vulnerable. This was dealt with through a written commitment to back up the already verbal commitment which was sought and was received from the management of the case organisation.

3.3.3 Justification of the Quasi-Longitudinal Single Case Design

As mentioned above, Yin (2009) posits the conditions under which single case study research is theoretically justified, including the desired advantage of longitudinal case studies that facilitate the collection of in-depth data over more than a single point in time (Yin 2009) including its particular value in studying organsational change processes (Dawson 2003).

The research aim of this study - examining the theoretical issues arising from how a not-for-profit food bank actually integrated itself into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain - involved studying processes over a period of time from 2009 to 2015; with particular regard to its earlier compared with its later stages of integration and therefore Yin's (2009) justification on longitudinal grounds applied to this study as follows.

Reporting the data at different points in time (refer to section 3.5.1 below for more information) was essential to describing and analysing how the integration actually occurred and to gaining a finer grained understanding the types of shared value that were prioritised by management, including identifying the emergence and implications of CSV-like conditions in supply chains involving not-for-profits (since CSV was an emergent concept appearing only to come into usage as a term since 2014 in the food banking sector).

3.3.4 Selection of the Case Study Organisation

Random selection of a single case from an available population may have occurred but it would have been counter-productive not to purposively use the case chosen based on theoretical considerations (Yin 2004) that best illuminated this study's research aims. Therefore, the case organisation was selected as follows.

The annual reports of the four largest food banking organisations in Australia were scanned and contact was made with the management of all four of these food banks. Each organisation was approached by telephone and email with an outline of the study attached by email and, after Yin (2009), an offer was made to provide a copy of the main findings of this study in return for their participation (the same procedure was followed for all of the four major food banks mentioned in this study). Meanwhile, in order to provide some useful context for the case: (1) the first stage of the literature review included scoping of relevant examples of international, national and regional food banking practices and issues; then (2) the researcher spoke in person with at least one and usually more representatives of all four major Australian food banks (three of whom had since responded to the abovementioned requests), noting any apparent differences; and (3) visited and had personal communications with three other case study organisations belonging to the parent of the case study food bank organisation (or 'sister' branches outside of Tasmania in NSW, Queensland and Victoria). As a result, the case selected best illuminated the theoretical concerns of the research (Silverman 2010), given that it was both: (1) generally typical of other Australian food banks and how they interacted with the food and grocery industries, (2) faced similar issues as a result of its interactions but, at the same time, (3) was a new business model in a region of Australia where food banking had not previously existed; supply chain integration and value adding processes could be tracked over time from inception to the present day (please refer to the justification for the quasi-longitudinal

single case design above). Having selected this single case it was important to achieve academic rigour from the outset of the research through the use of a case study protocol.

3.3.5 Case Study Protocol

One way in which to achieve the academic rigour (and see the 'Criteria for judging the quality of the case study research' later on below) is to develop and follow a case study protocol (please refer to Appendix A for the details). The component parts of the case study protocol (Yin 2009) were: a literature review, a theoretical framework that guides data collection, prior research questions (the use of formal research propositions in exploratory case studies are not required, but some other guiding framework is recommended by Yin (2009) - and was employed). The following sections details the research questions and the research issues that form an integral part of the case study protocol that provided academic rigour to the study.

3.3.6 Research Questions and Issues Arising

The general research opportunity (in Chapter One) and the culmination of specific research questions (in Chapter Two) resulted in the research issues shown in column one in Table 3.3 below. For each of the issues a combination of methods was applied (in column two) and data was gathered from various sources (in column three).

Table 3.3 Research issues, the methods for addressing them and the main source of data

Research questions	Method	Sources
RQ1: What strategic priorities are evident for a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain? RQ2: What types of shared value is perceived as strategically important by the managers of a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain?	Multiple, qualitative (as listed below)	All available (as listed below)

RI 1: How did the food bank form, establish and grow and integrate into a supply chain over time?	Documentary analysis and interviews	Interrogation of management diaries (2008-2015), internal correspondence Multiple, lengthy interviews with a founding manager Conversations with senior food bank staff
RI 2: How does the food bank practically organise its surplus food supply chain activities as a part of a for-profit food and grocery supply chain?	Documentary analysis, interviews, observations	Site visits to the food bank and to donor and recipient premises to observe and discuss the nature of the activities undertaken Interviews with food bank employees Interviews with food bank management
RI 3: What are the strategic priorities of the food bank's management's for creating shared value (adding social value to surplus food) and why?	Interviews, content analysis of documents, observations	Interviews with senior management Conversations with all staff levels Policy, strategy content of annual reports. Discuss internal correspondence with senior management
RI 4: How does the food bank's value adding activities contribute to the supply chain's social agenda and the food bank's social mission, and why?	Documents, observations	Food bank policies, waste data and other data Site visits to the food bank Discussions with all staff and other organisation's staff

3.4 Multiple Sources of Case Evidence and Qualitative Methods

While quantitative methods, such as surveys, are sometimes used in (or wholly comprise) case study research (Yin 2009), in this study the purpose was to explore and examine a social phenomenon in more depth (Silverman 2010) than the breadth that is afforded by survey

research methods. Therefore, the qualitative methods used in this study included; documentary analysis, direct observation and some participant observation, and interviews, as detailed below. In this case, the methods came about as a result of planning, but were also adapted and combined due to both necessity and opportunity (Yin 2009) as will be explained.

3.4.1 Background to the Application of the Methods

The data was gathered using the flexible application of several methods (Yin 2009). The methods of observation and then the choice of more informal rather than formal documentary analysis (e.g. lengthy electronic diary interrogation) in combination with observations and interviews was finally decided upon. Participation in the food bank's activities, by default, resulted in participant observation techniques being employed for a period of time, although not so much through full immersion or complex manipulation (Yin 2009), but rather simply by transparent involvement (see more later on below). After completing several tasks for the selected case organisation (such as creating work procedures, project documentation and marketing materials), in addition to the literature reviews conducted earlier, the researcher gained knowledge about how the organisation operated and the challenges it faced (which stemmed mainly from its lack of resources and its particular regional location). As a result of these early stages, complete and open (self-regulated) access to business documents was granted (supported by written permission) and this privilege was held throughout the study.

Meanwhile three lengthy conversations with two senior staff and two site visits at two other food banks (see Table 3.4 below), lasting around four hours each in total, resulted in both case context and embedded unit of analysis context (Yin 2009). From this point on it was decided to focus on the case and more on the research method of indirect observation than on participant observation, through data gathering field trips and site visits. In support of this, a style of guided conversations was adopted that was designed to place staff at ease and to elicit answers to the

research questions in the particular real-world situation encountered. This situation was attributed to the nature of the logistical operations and working environment of the study sites and was dealt with flexibly in order to maintain good will and access to the case over the extended period of time necessary (as implied throughout the next sections).

3.4.2 Guided Conversations

The next step taken was to formally commence holding conversations with all levels of staff within and outside of the organisation, and as mentioned, at which point the observation method became less participatory (i.e. there were more direct observations) but, still, intertwined with the other methods (for example, the field trips were a combination of conversations and direct observations) (Yin 2009). However, one advantage of interviews is the ability to 'focus directly on case study topics' and to gather insights that are not available, for example, in documents. However, Yin (2009, p. 102) also lists several potential weaknesses, which are: inherent bias in both the question and the response, poor recall and, being told what is perceived to be the 'correct' answer (response bias). However, according to Eisenhardt and Graebner (2007, p. 28) these issues, especially bias, can be dealt with by selecting interviewees from a range of sources, as follows.

> Informants can include organizational actors from different hierarchical levels, functional areas, groups, and geographies, as well as actors from other relevant organizations and outside observers such as market analysts. It is unlikely that these varied informants will engage in convergent retrospective sense making and/or impression management.

In this study, the 'range of sources' (e.g. visits and interviews, stated in Table 3.4 below). That is people at different levels (of seniority and length of service), in several places, and within and outside the case organisation were interviewed, as follows.

Table 3.4 Contacts made with staff at all four major Australian food banks

Food Bank	FareShare	OzHarvest	Foodbank	SecondBite	*Case*
No. of visits	3	1	1	4	23
No. of interviewees	2	3	1	2	8
No. of respondents	2	2	1	2	10
No. of different sites	1	1	1	4	2
No. of different seniority levels	2	2	1	2	4

However, as there was a tendency for many respondents to simply restate the stated aims of food banking (i.e. reduce food waste, feed hungry people) rather than to respond to the specific questions (especially on audio tape and especially about food industry waste issues), a less formal approach was taken (see Table 3.5 further on below for the details). Also, while visits to the donor organisations that support food banks were not in the scope of this study, on several occasions, when making observations during field trips, the investigator was freely invited into several food donors' operations (e.g. Harvest Moon, Lion Nathan) to interview staff. This afforded an opportunity to confirm or realise several lines of enquiry about the nature of both the good will and the profit motives within the food supply chains containing food banks that had been alluded to in the food banks visited. In sum, interviews with employees and volunteers involved seeking verification or clarification of the food bank's operations (as per the relevant issues), but also flexibly taking the interviews in the direction in which it was most productive (Yin 2009).

A combination of documentary and conversational methods was employed, as follows. The personal electronic business diary (spanning the years from 2008 to 2015) of the founder of the case study organisation was interrogated with the assistance and cooperation of the founder on several occasions totalling more than 40 hours of conversations supported by accessing the diary on each of eight occasions. While a diary entry is not a fact *per se*, information was

gleaned by a way of viewing the diary entry against the guided conversation points and cross-checking with other sources (see 'Triangulation' below). That is, if there was an irrelevance or an uncertainty about an entry's content or its purposes, the entry was disregarded as case evidence. The full procedure relating to the interview method was as follows.

3.4.2.1 Recruitment of Participants

The interviewees were recruited through direct contact within and outside of the four purposively selected food banking organisations of interest from which the case was selected in its real world food banking sector institutional context. Interviewees from outside of the case organisation were approached formally (similar to and at the same time as the procedure for 'Selection of cases'). 'Internal' case study food bank interviewees were approached personally after gaining the in-principle support of management to approach staff as required. All interviewees were provided with an outline of the study in the form of an information sheet along with a consent form (a copy of the consent forms is attached as Appendix Bi).

3.4.2.2 Number, Organsational Roles and Contributions of Interviews

There is *no set number of interviews* for case study research, but as a guide, the ideal number of interviews for PhD theses is considered to be around 22, consisting of three or four interviewees at different organisational levels (Perry 1998). However, in this case study as a result of the small size of the organisation and freely available other sources of case evidence (e.g. the availability of detailed documents and diaries and the willingness of staff to facilitate observations in several locations in great detail) A total of 10 respondents provided 28 types of interactions that are detailed in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5 Details of Respondents

Respondent	Position	No. of interactions	Type	Comments
Respondent A	Specialist manager	9	Semi-structured interviews (6), conversations	A founding manager providing in-depth knowledge and documentation of the food bank 'start-up' and subsequent strategic priorities
Respondent B	General manager	5	Semi-structured interview (1), conversations	A senior manager in charge of strategic direction
Respondent D	Specialist manager	2	Semi-structured interview (1), detailed observations/conversations	Provided details of current and future planned value adding strategies
Respondent F	Board member	2	Semi-structured interviews,	Explained sector-wide and local issues and challenges. Provided detailed information about collaborative shared value activities
Respondent G	Staff member	2	Detailed observations, conversations	Detailed the process of donating and receiving surplus food along with issues arising from a paid employees viewpoint
Respondent H	Senior manager	1	Semi-structured interview	Provided detailed information about regional food bank start-up and contemporary priorities and issues
Respondent O	Operations manager	2	Semi-structured interview (1), detailed observations/conversations	Detailed knowledge of implementation of supply chain operations. Assisted with mapping surplus food (shared value) supply chain
Respondent N	Senior manager	1	Semi-structured interview	Gave insights into issues of dealing with leading food and grocery supply chain members over time
Respondent Q	Operations manager	2	Semi-structured interview (1), detailed observations, conversations	Explained operations and sector issues and mapped alternative, case contextual shared value chain

Respondent W	Volunteer staff member	2	Detailed observations, conversations	Detailed the value added activities from an operational viewpoint

3.4.2.3 Interview Procedure

The interviews were all conducted in person and on-site at food banks, food donor premises or in vehicles on-route, with some follow up work undertaken by telephone and/or email. After providing a brief overview of the purpose of the study, the details of the interview procedure were fully explained to the interviewee. The explanation started with informing the interviewee of their rights (as set out in the relevant attachments) and of the obligations and the duties of the investigators including, but not limited to, the interviewees right to decide against participating and to answer questions only in a manner in which they feel comfortable or to decline to answer any particular questions. The consent form was explained and presented and signed accordingly and all interviewees willingly went ahead with their interviews. At first all interviewees were given the option of audio recording or not audio recording the interview but it became apparent that only very senior level participants agreed to their interviews to be recorded (i.e. two). Subsequently, due to the nature of the research and the nature of the situation the interviews were not audio recorded, but the notes taken were systematically stored and were available for viewing by interviewees. That is, the interviewees were offered a copy of the notes and the opportunity to comment upon and or correct any errors and/or remove any particular data. The interviewee was asked if they were satisfied with the procedures and were reminded of the provisions of their agreement to participate (i.e. confidentiality, privacy and opportunity to review the transcript).

3.4.2.4 Identifiability of the Data

The information collected is of a general and not personal nature about the professional views of interviewees involved in food banks about food banking. In any event, the confidentiality of

the participants was protected by not disclosing any detailed participant data and personal information to other parties other than the investigator, particularly in any subsequently published material, without their prior written approval. This condition also applies to any observations or documents of a potentially sensitive nature that were viewed to which have been referred but the details of which have not been made publicly available.

3.4.3 Documentary Analysis

Public documents accessed during the literature review and scoping stage consisted of the annual and sustainability reports of the aforementioned food banking organisations, their major donors in the food industries, and food bank research publications and government reports. These sources provided contact information and also informed the early development of the issues to be pursued in this study. Privately held documents that were accessed for this study were mainly electronic files, including administrative, procedural and business diary entry information. Written permission to access all files was obtained, but it was decided that it would be prudent to only access and read information relevant to the research issues. For example, when organisational charts were accessed, no human resources files containing personal information about employees and volunteers were accessed. Other food banks had sent informative documents by email but these were not of a sensitive nature. For example, an operational manager had sent information about 'What food does FareShare accept?' (Respondent F 2015, pers. comm., 31 January).

There was no highly structured approach to recording information held in files (see 'qualitative content analysis' further below) but, rather, documents were accessed systematically for the purposes of addressing particular questions or following up on issues where the memory of interviewees had failed, or for the purposes of triangulating the results (there is more on this below). This approach is possible, according to Yin (2009) due to the 'stability' of documents

as a source of case evidence. That is, their relative permanence and availability over time, especially in this case, was one of the advantages of documentary analysis. However, admittedly, if documentary analysis (e.g. by way of content analysis) was the only method used, and this had been a multiple-case study with different aims, then a more systematic and thorough selection, review and recording may have been called for, for example with regard to creating a population frame and employing document sampling and data analysis techniques. Instead, the diary interrogation technique that was mentioned above, and the systematic reference to other documents (e.g. annual reports and internal reports and communications) with reference to the research questions (Yin 2009) was the main documentary method used.

3.4.4 Observation

In theory, two types of observation have already been mentioned above: direct and participant. Direct observation may occur simply as a result of a single observer (there were not multiple observers used in this case study) taking note of certain phenomena (albeit, noting them down less formally) while conducting an interview or a site or a field visit (Yin 2009). For example, according to Yin (2009), the condition of an office and warehouse may indicate the resource richness or otherwise of an (food bank) organisation. Direct observation was the main form of observation undertaken, with the already mentioned exception of the time during which real work was undertaken as a volunteer for the organisation (see the next section for more on this). Related to direct observation, another source of case evidence is physical or cultural artefacts (e.g. objects). For example, as a by-product of walking around food bank premises it was noted that certain technologies were evident in some food banking organisations and not others (e.g. logistical technology: sophisticated vehicle tracking and route planning software). These differences were simply noted by way of the observation of integrating activities noted in the literature and with regard to simply ‘mapping’ a ‘surplus food supply chain’ (see Figure 5.1 in

Appendix D) rather than by way of employing yet another method (e.g. artefact analyses) in this study.

In the literature there are several strengths and weaknesses noted about such a method (Yin 2009). The potential problems being that the role may become all-consuming or that the study was limited to only one of many possible work sites or contexts. As a result, data may not be recorded adequately and/or without bias. Dealing with the second potential problem first, of site locations, please refer to the above section on interviewing and to the multiple sites a listed above in Table 3.4. On the first potential problem, there may be bias due to becoming too involved in and, perhaps, becoming an advocate for the organisation's work – rather than an independent observer (Yin 2009). However, in this case there were trade-offs against which such problems were assessed. There certainly were insights into the strategic priorities of a small not-for-profit work group undertaking its daily activities that were gained (one of the main strengths of the method). In this case, there was remarkably little opportunity (or the desire) to manipulate major events, which can be a source of bias. This was mainly due to the physical presence or otherwise and the apparently real nature of certain operational activities (compared with what *interviewees* considered to be their strategic importance). However, logically, it cannot be denied that some degree of influence on events occurred such as attending meetings and then 'steering' a conversation about a question which needed answering (Yin 2009). The issues here were really whether 1) any negatives (biases) outweighed the positives (insights), and 2) if any negatives in this instance were any worse in their effects than those found in other methods (e.g. a poorly framed or put interview question), or 3) if anything other than richness was added to the findings of the study. Given that the potential issues were recognised early on it is doubtful that the method as applied in this case did anything other than to improve the quality of the study. One way to avoid too many problems arising in one method

was to draw upon multiple sources of case evidence (as above) and to analyse and triangulate the data derived from such different sources accordingly (see further below in section 3.5.3).

3.5 Data Analysis and Quality

3.5.1 Initial Analysis

As mentioned, the quasi-longitudinal single case research design afforded a better opportunity, than for example attending to six or eight cases in a multiple-case design, to gain in-depth insights about complex phenomena of interest (such as organisational change processes), in a real-world situation, over a period of time, on multiple levels (or what Pettigrew 1985 refers to as 'contextualist research'). It followed that the historical and social context in which different food banking organisations and collaborations (and different food banking related supply chains themselves) emerge and evolve within social and business contexts, lend themselves to analytical strategies and techniques revolving around contextualist (Pettigrew 1985) and 'time-series' analysis (see Yin 2009, pp. 144-149). Within the category of time series, several analytical approaches exist including simple time-series, complex time-series and chronologies. For this study's purposes, chronologies were considered a 'special form of time-series analysis' that 'can be richer and more insightful than general time-series approaches' (Yin 2009, p. 148).

The purpose of a chronology (see Chapter Four) in this single case study was not simply to chronicle events (but which of itself *is*, according to Pettigrew 1985 and Yin 2009, an important process) but to provide an initial basis for causal inferences. In this study the causal inferences were made with regard to the validity of the issues explored and proposed as result of Chapter Four's material. This was done 'because the basic sequence of a cause and its effect cannot be temporally inverted' (Yin 2009, p. 148). However, prior causal propositions along with

indicators must exist in order to guide the analysis. Yin provides several such types of causal propositions, two relevant ones being that:

> Some events must always occur before other events, with the reverse *sequence* being impossible;
>
> Certain time periods in a case study may be marked by classes of events that differ substantially from those of another period (Yin 2009, pp. 148-9).

There are several general cautions noted by Pettigrew about the nature of organisational research and by Yin (2009) about case study data analysis generally. There was no hard and fast 'recipe' (Pettigrew 1985; Yin 2009) for conducting this single case research or the subsequent analysis, including the data analysis strategies, tactics and tools (Yin 2009). In chronology analysis, the investigator must and did ultimately make the decisions regarding data analysis. While convention often dictates that software such as NVivo must be used, after Yin (2009, pp. 127-8), this was deemed as neither necessary nor effective as a replacement for the investigators analytical judgements. The main reason being that converting different data types from diversely different sources and formats (e.g. value chain maps) into text (compared with data from studies containing only lengthy textual passages, often from more open-ended interviews) was still 'one step short' of the actual analysis required (Yin 2009). Instead, and one advantage of a chronology was that during the descriptive phase and its writing up, the data was already displayed; in the analytical phase the initial inferences were then made explicit with reference to specified questions put to the data, guided by appropriate indicators (Yin 2009). Table 3.6 below shows a generalised example of the manner in which initial analysis occurred.

Table 3.6 Example of the technique of chronology analysis

Proposition	Events T1	Events T2	Indicator(s)	Case data	Inferred issue
Food banks play a critical role in a food supply chain's management of food surpluses through 'creating shared value'	Food bank non-existent pre-2009	Food supply chain collaborations post-2012	1. Food waste levels in food supply chains 2. Nature of upstream and downstream value adding activities developed	1. Food waste collection by food bank increasing 2. 'Cascading' value differs in nature to other value adding efforts and (CSR) issues arise	Food bank is a new intermediary that facilitates more food waste collection and more cascading value than previously which became labelled as 'CSV'

3.5.2 Qualitative Content Analysis

Within the above contextual setting, this section discusses examples of how some data were analysed in order to arrive at the findings and to draw conclusions by using qualitative content analysis (QCA). QCA is defined by Schreier as a:

> method for systematically describing the meaning of qualitative data (2014, p. 170).

QCA is eminently suitable for use within case study research (Kohlbacher 2006; Patton 2005) and its application in this study was simply a matter of coding data to derive meaningful categories through which to derive judgements, a process described as per the following examples (and see Appendix C for the coding technique and coding rules applied in this research). With regard to the chronology and to RQ1 (see above), the data were analysed, for example, according to the indicator of 'growth' (volumes of food collected and number of branches opened); two overarching strategic management priorities were distilled and characterised as (1) growth strategy, and (2) self-redundancy strategy which influenced the later discussed emphases and resources given to the different social value adding activities observed. The researcher was then in a position (after, as mentioned below, triangulation

between different data sources) to judge that a growth strategy helped align the food bank with the food industries' agenda and the rival strategy to maintain support from its social agenda stakeholders (at least in terms of communications and management sentiment, but was found to diminish in importance over time).

With regard to RQ2, the observed value adding activities were coded as they related to social, business and environmental value adding (a triple bottom line approach to sustainable value creation and management was mentioned in Chapter Two). Observations recorded showed prioritising and apportioning resources differently along the observed (and described in Figure 5.1, Appendix D) 'surplus food supply chain' that changed over time. This placed the researcher in a position (and to verify through triangulation of the data from different sources, as per below) that while the emphasis of the food bank remained on communicating social value added (e.g. through the content of communications such as annual reports analysed from 2010 to 2015), its observed activities were increasingly food industry business growth-centred, with few actual resources expended on the nonetheless important social (Community Food Program) and fewer still on addressing environmental value added in a systematic and evaluative manner. In sum, the judgment was then made that the rhetoric of triple bottom line, SROI-based social value adding activities differed from an observed emphasis on economic growth and sustainability. The implications are discussed elsewhere in the thesis, but the data analysis method and technique used in this study allowed for a fine grained contextualised understanding of how an integrated NFP plays a role in the outsourcing of a component part of its collaborators' CSR and sustainability responsibilities and how this, with regard to food waste issues in food supply chains - and not an intrinsic social welfare and environmental agenda per se – over time becomes an organising principle for subsequent strategic management priorities.

3.5.3 Data Triangulation

To put it simply, triangulation is a 'field-surveying' term which, in social science research, refers to the 'converging lines of enquiry' (Yin 2009) that result from using several different sources of case evidence (even within a chosen method as described above, including several sources of interviewees). There may be several types or levels of triangulation, for example, those identified by Patton (2002) (with regard to evaluation research): data triangulation, investigator triangulation, theory triangulation and methodological triangulation. Most importantly, in the context of this study (for one reason, there was only one investigator and one case), the main form of triangulation was *data* triangulation.

Several data triangulating strategies were mentioned in this chapter already. At a general level, before coming to some more specific examples, 'checks and balances' (Kelly & Yin 2007) were applied from the start of this study. For example, early on, in the literature review and scoping stages, the clearly positive self-reporting of the food banks in their annual reports (their stated claims) were checked against contrary views of food banking in diverse literatures and a judgement was made (within the study's realism paradigm, above) about food banking and the realities surrounding food waste management in Australia. This 'check and balance' Kelly & Yin 2007) informed how the data was to be viewed in the chosen setting (Yin 2009). Also, as demonstrated in Table 3.4 above, with regard to the respondents, different people situated in different places provided diversity and rigour to the method (Eisenhardt & Graebner 2007). More specifically, with regard to documentary analysis, the diary interrogation involved, for example, (1) selectively taking entries on face value, and (2) cross checking critical events with other sources (mainly through other documents but sometimes people). For example, the stated reason for establishing the food bank (which had implications for better understanding management's strategic priorities over time) was first documented from diary sources of data

and then corroborated by conversations with other staff involved with the start-up. In addition to this, different accounts were given of the primary purpose of the food bank (e.g. to address food insecurity versus to collect and redistribute food surpluses) depending upon whom was interviewed. This data was reconciled by comparing observed events categorised accordingly (see coding above) and comparing views about the desirable (philosophical) goals versus the reality of redistribution activities and the apparent net outcomes of these in triple bottom line terms, with judgements subsequently made as a part of further triangulation by discussing these observed activities with suitably qualified staff (see Table 3.5 above). If there was no agreement then the data was disregarded or noted accordingly. With regard to the criteria for judging the quality of case study research, in the context of the realism paradigm (see Healy & Perry 2000), this includes: construct validity, internal validity, reliability, and external validity, of which the first three have particular importance in this single-embedded qualitative case study.

3.5.4 Construct Validity

Construct validity refers to a situation whereby different concepts accord in a manner expected in theory (Babbie 2001). The manner in which this study addressed the issue of construct validity was, after Yin (2009): (1) to use multiple sources of evidence (see data triangulation), (2) to make reference to a 'chain of evidence': that is, the linking of research questions, data collected and the conclusions drawn, and (3) to have the case reports reviewed (by food bank management) to assess their accuracy. For example, during the review of electronic diary, Respondent A gave ongoing feedback during the process of writing up the results.

3.5.5 Internal Validity

Internal validity mainly refers to the problems associated with drawing inferences about the data (Yin 2009). That is, in doing so, the researcher may stand accused of showing bias. However, a misunderstanding about case research (as reviewed and corrected by Flyvbjerg) is that there is a 'tendency to confirm the researcher's preconceived ideas'. Flyvberg (2006, p. 237) counters that:

> The case study contains no greater bias toward verification of the researcher's preconceived notions than other methods of inquiry. On the contrary, experience indicates that the case study contains a greater bias toward falsification of preconceived notions than toward verification.

Generally speaking the study paid much attention not only to the primary but to the secondary literature review, which allowed the researcher to focus on the 'realities' and not on preconceived notions of 'good' charitable works or 'bad' food industry agendas. Specifically, the use of the case study protocol and triangulation meant that the data was relevant to the study aims and not treated as sacrosanct until either considered more fully or cross-checked with another source (Yin 2009).

3.5.6 Reliability

Reliability relates to the in-principle re-undertaking of this study by another researcher and, in doing so, that researcher obtaining similar results (in other research, simply 'repeatability') (Babbie 2001). There are methods available (e.g. the case study protocol) and techniques (such as keeping a case study database) for recording the steps and actions taken in qualitative case research (Yin 2009), which were followed in this study. However, the main purpose of this explorative, qualitative case study was to gather data within its real world context (i.e. it was context-dependent) that is rich in meaning and insights (Silverman 2010). Therefore, it would have been counter-productive to the research aims to over emphasise a concern with the

problems associated with other types of research (i.e. context-independent research) (Flyvbjerg 2006). Instead, issues around the quality of the research design and reliability were more about academic rigour, ethical conduct and integrity and not, for example, an obsession with the *actual* 'repeatability' of the case study. In sum, the case study protocol overall was the main means of ensuring and communicating internal validity and reliability (Yin 2009) (again see Appendix A).

3.5.7 Ethics Approval

Approval for the study was granted by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) Tasmania Network. In addition to the previously stated management of potential ethical issues, the data collected and persons interviewed were treated in accordance with the HREC guidelines, including their privacy and confidentiality considerations.

3.6 Conclusion

This chapter started out by presenting a description and a justification of the realism paradigm within which the study is located. The chapter then went on to outline the case study as a research strategy including the advantages (and disadvantages) of the quasi-longitudinal single-embedded case study. The qualitative methods were then justified and explained as being flexibly but rigorously applied by way of the case study protocol; and the data analysis and the criteria for judging the quality of the research were outlined. Several potential problems were encountered in this research (as pre-empted by Yin 2009). However, the methods employed allowed for an in-depth look into the case study organisation while flexibly adapting in order to: (1) maintain access to the case over the required time, in order to (2) successfully address the research questions. In the next chapters the findings are presented. Firstly, Chapter Four provides the detailed chronology – including historical background to the emergence and

development of the supply chain integration of the case study organisation (based on both primary and secondary sources of data). Based on this new information, Chapter Five directly addresses the last chapter's research questions about food bank processes of integration and value creating activities.

Chapter Four

4.0 Case History

4.1 Chapter Objectives

The objectives of this chapter are two-fold. Firstly, the chapter will provide some contextual information about Australian food banking organisations, the different models they employ and their recent growth, with the emphasis on SecondBite. Secondly, the chapter details events in the formation of SecondBite Tasmania, the first not-for-profit food banking organisation dedicated solely to the large-scale and coordinated redistribution of food surpluses in Tasmania (the last Australian state to embrace food banking). Details will be provided of the social and business context of SecondBite Tasmania's formation, establishment and then consolidation and expansion, leading up to the fuller social and business integration of this food bank.

4.2 Case Context: The Australian Food Banking Sector

4.2.1 Four Australian Food Banking Models

Whilst there are differences in the business models employed by the four large Australian food banks, there are many similarities in their core operations: (1) all of them 'rescued' food from the industry claiming that it would otherwise have gone to landfill (i.e. they were all participants in food industry supply chains); (2) they all invested in some form or another of environmental and social accounting and produced (almost standardised) very positive reporting of the impacts of their respective organisations - presumably in order to attract more financial and in-kind support - in order to grow their businesses; (3) they all conveyed their reliance upon the support of volunteer labour; and, similarly (4) the importance, and the high-profile promotion of their relationships with philanthropists and the food industries, mainly

supermarket chains, and (5) all claimed to some extent to be educating people about food waste, food security, and nutrition issues or implied (e.g. see SecondBite's Annual Reports 2009 to 2014) that they were in some way lobbying governments and the food industry in order to address the underlying causes of both food insecurity and food system sustainability problems (please refer to the already mentioned annual reports for the detailed claims). Despite these similarities, some distinguishing features were discerned. Each food bank is now described with regard to at least one distinguishing feature of its model and with regard to its spread and growth.

4.2.2 The Growth of Australia's 'Big Four' Food Banks

The emergence, spread and the growth in Australia's four main food banks, including Foodbank, OzHarvest, FareShare and SecondBite is briefly described in this section. The first three food banks are introduced and then, in the next section, the growth and spread of SecondBite is described in more detail. The first Australian food bank to emerge, Foodbank Australia, was established in NSW in 1992. Foodbank was incorporated in each state of Australia and was the only long-established fully national food bank in Australia. Of the four large food banks, Foodbank Australia most closely fitted the definition of a 'clearing house' food bank provided in Chapter One. Foodbank aimed to 'end hunger' and focused on supplying 'core staple foods', acting '…as a conduit between the food & grocery industries' donations and the welfare sectors' needs' (Foodbank Australia Incorporated 2014). The grocery industry referred to included Foodbank's main national sponsor, the large food retailer Woolworths Ltd, and others.

FareShare Victoria was established in 2001 (known at the time as One Umbrella) (FareShare 2014) and similar to other Australian food banks, FareShare worked closely with the food retailers (i.e. the Australian supermarket chains), in this case Woolworths Ltd (Victorian

stores). FareShare differed to Foodbank Incorporated by emphasising the production and supply to charities of frozen bulk and ready-made meals not just food ingredients. While FareShare operated mainly within Victoria, a senior FareShare manager stated that FareShare nonetheless planned to further expand into rural and regional areas within Victoria and, perhaps, interstate (Respondent F 2014, pers. comm., 22 September). The third of the four food banks listed above, OzHarvest, was established in New South Wales (NSW) in November 2004. In 2014 OzHarvest celebrated 10 years in operation and, with funds from the Goodman Foundation opened a new 'multi-purpose warehouse…to house a growing team of head office staff and volunteers' (OzHarvest 2014). OzHarvest achieved (a form of) national coverage when it commenced operations in Melbourne and Brisbane in 2014 (adding to existing branches in Sydney, Newcastle, Gold Coast and Adelaide). It formalised its relationship with Woolworths Ltd and undertook high-profile cross-promotional activities with them in 2015.

The fourth food bank, SecondBite, differed from Foodbank Australia by emphasising the redistribution of mainly fresh fruit and vegetables rather than shelf staple items. SecondBite collaborated with Coles Supermarkets (the main competitor of Woolworths Ltd) and is further described, with regard to its organisational growth and national spread, in the next section. In summary of this part of the chapter, the four food banks are listed in Table 4.1 below along with some details of the model they employ and at least one example of a differentiating activity undertaken.

Table 4.1 Select distinguishing features of four large Australian food banks

Food banking organisation	Management	Model	Differentiating activities	Distribution to regions
Foodbank Australia Inc.	Foodbank Australia board in NSW, and regional incorporations/ boards of mgt.	National groceries logistics with a fee for service model	Grocery sales Non-food essentials	National warehousing system (with inventory management and client ordering system)

			Collaborative Supply Chain Program	
SecondBite	Incorporation in VIC.	Multi-regional fresh food collection and redistribution free of charge	Research and Advocacy Community Food with Coles Supermarkets	Regional systems of logistics and distribution with Coles and Community Connect
OzHarvest	Incorporated in NSW	Multi-regional all types of food collection and delivery, free of charge	All types of food donors/ collections	Regional systems of collection and distribution with 'REAP'
FareShare	Incorporated in VIC.	VIC only collection and redistribution; meal production, free of charge and with social enterprise attached	Large-scale meal production Social enterprise component	Contracted redistribution via Foodbank Victoria

4.2.3 The Growth of the Case Study Food Banking Organisation

This section briefly describes the extent of SecondBite's growth in Australia, from its establishment in Melbourne in 2005 until the completion of the data collection in 2015. The indicators of the growth of SecondBite in Australia were found in its annual reports; these indicators were identified as: (1) geographical spread, and (2) the volumes of food redistributed (indicators of the weight in kilograms or tonnes of 'food sourced' or 'food rescued'). Food volumes were represented either as actual meals (in the case of FareShare) or 'meals provided-equivalents' (see, for example, SecondBite 2013). By the end of the 2014 financial year, SecondBite reported that the number of employees was 61, the number of registered volunteers had increased from two to 630, and there was a more extensive and sophisticated network of refrigerated vehicles and warehouses in every state and territory of Australia (SecondBite 2014). The first branch established outside of Victoria was the case study food bank SecondBite Tasmania. With regard to the indicator of the growth in its activities, from 2005 to 2014,

SecondBite reported year on year growth as indicated by the amount of food collected or 'rescued'; up from 655 kg in 2005 to a projected 7 million kg in 2015. This spread and growth was evidenced not only nationally but also in the Tasmanian branch under study. Also, as shown in Table 4.2 below, SecondBite Tasmania represented 14% of SecondBite's total national food redistribution by volume and 14% of the Community Food Program activity; while Tasmania's population represented around 2.2% of the national figure (ABS 2015).

Table 4.2 SecondBite Tasmania as a portion of SecondBite national activity and programs

SecondBite	**Food (million kg)**		**Recipient Orgs. (no.)**		**Meals equivalent (million)**	
Year	*2014*	*2015*	*2014*	*2015*	*2014*	*2015*
National volume	5	7	1100	1200	10	14
Tasmanian volume	.85	1	150	170	1.7	2
Tasmanian portion of national (%)	17	14	13	14	17	14

As a result, SecondBite was able to communicate its successes to its stakeholders, including prospective sponsors and donors, with regard to: (1) national coverage (it had operations in every state and territory) (2) continual growth in its activities, and (3) a positive social agenda - based on the increasing volumes of food 'rescued' from landfill (i.e. collected from the food industries through its association with the food and grocery supply chains). However, whilst the growth and popular appeal of food banks and a prominent place in food supply chains was apparent, the contextualised processes involved in the manner of a food bank's emergence and establishment and subsequent social, political and business integration were not. The next parts of this chapter addressed this lack by compiling a chronology of key events from 2008 to 2015, which gave effect to SecondBite Tasmania's current prominent integrated position.

4.3 2008-2009: The Formation of Tasmania's First Food Banking Organisation

4.3.1 Socio-political Networking and Influencing

Secondbite Tasmania (hereafter in this chapter referred to as 'SecondBite') was formed after events that occurred in 2008 and in early 2009 in both Melbourne and in Hobart. The main source of data for describing the following historical events was a series of six semi-structured interviews with a founding SecondBite manager (see 'Respondent A' throughout) totalling around 40 hours in duration, held in Hobart from 8 August 2014 to 16 October 2014 and supported by personal and business diary interrogation (as per Chapter Three's detailed description).

SecondBite was established in 2005 in Melbourne, Australia and soon realised a growth phase with rapidly rising volumes of fresh surplus food collections. This growth led to the expansion of its existing operations in Melbourne and to the advent of a limited sub-contracted presence in the city of Geelong, Australia, followed by a decision in 2008 to open a branch and to commence operations in Tasmania. SecondBite Victoria had been working in partnership with several community organisations that were also present in Tasmania (e.g. The Rotary Club of Australia (Rotary) and the not-for-profit organisation Reclink Australia (2014). These were the main initial social and business contacts for SecondBite. Reclink was coincidently also expanding its operations into Tasmania in 2008 and was the source of the first volunteer employed by SecondBite (subsequently employed to manage the new SecondBite branch later in 2009) through the Reclink relationship (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August). This first volunteer role involved, from an operational view, simply picking up surplus or unwanted vegetables from 'Pete's Patch' (i.e. the Peter Cundall's demonstration garden at the Royal Tasmanian Botanical Gardens of ABC TV fame) and taking these goods to the newly established Reclink Tasmania (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August). The next critical

relationship following Reclink was with Rotary, one of SecondBite Victoria's earliest and longest standing partner organisations. This relationship was extended to Tasmania through the agency of Charles Cook of Rotary Tasmania (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August).

From a more strategic view, the volunteer's other main challenge revolved around overcoming legal (political and other barriers) to the establishment of food banking in Tasmania. The lack of legal protection for food donors was perceived as a problem especially for implementing the 'fresh food rescue' model (i.e. due to the perishable nature and associated health risks compared with staple food items). Changes to the various state based Civil Liability Acts had been underway in Australia and similar changes were thought to be required in Tasmania. The process of change during 2008, involved the CEO and the GM of SecondBite visiting Tasmania several times and making representations to the Tasmanian Government. The result was the changes made to the Civil Liability Act (2002) through the Civil Liability Amendment Act 2008; specifically providing legal protection for food donors (see 35F. Protection of food donors) (Parliament of Tasmania 2008). SecondBite representatives later attended parliament to hear a reading of the Act (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August). In March of 2009 the first full-time and paid position of Respondent A marked the beginnings of a more established operation and the work of more social and political networking and fund raising (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August). To this end, the abovementioned meetings with government in 2008 and 2009 resulted not only in the introduction of Tasmania's first food donation-based Civil Liability Law amendment but also in developing subsequent close relationships with local, state (and later even Tasmanian-based federal) members of parliament. In support of this early networking, an educational (or marketing) process was undertaken in 2009. The aim was to create an understanding of food banking generally and, in particular, to create new demand for SecondBite's services in the region.

4.3.2 Disruption and Creating Demand

The document 'What is Food Rescue and who is SecondBite' (SecondBite Tasmania 2009) was circulated and included SecondBite's strategy and the results of a survey of potential community organisations that could benefit from SecondBite's new products and services. Initially, social welfare organisations needed to be encouraged to receive food products free of charge. The offering to these social welfare sector organisations (and to governments), was that agencies could redirect their finances (fresh food budget) to other services should they receive free food from SecondBite (SecondBite Tasmania 2009, p. 6). This marketing exercise coincided with poor economic conditions in Tasmania in 2008, the Global Financial Crisis and the advent of the Social Inclusion Unit (as a part of the then Tasmanian Government's Department of the Premier and Cabinet - DPAC), the appointment of a Social Inclusion Commissioner and the advent of the Food Security Council of Tasmania (FSCT) which led to some institutional changes and the FSCT's timely promotion of the concept of food security in Tasmania (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 6 September). Subsequently, the FSCT was also a source of funds that were used to help establish SecondBite (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 6 September). Another source of funds was the Tasmanian Community Fund (TCF), which was established in 1999 and is a key source of funding for eligible not-for-profit organisations in Tasmania. SecondBite submitted many funding applications from 2009 onwards and received funds from the FSCT, the TCF and others (such as the Tasmanian Government Social and Nutrition Unit, and Newman's Own Foundation).

SecondBite had formed in 2008-09 and commenced with very rudimentary operations, with one person working from their own home and using their own vehicle (which according to a senior manager interviewed on 29 October 2014 was also the case in 2012 when SecondBite Queensland (SBQ) commenced operations (Respondent H 2014, pers. comm., 29 October).

Therefore, it was a SecondBite management priority to establish a physical presence and a food redistribution infrastructure. The following outlines some of the challenges and milestones in SecondBite's establishment during 2009-10, including the development of office and then warehouse space and suitable equipment such as refrigeration for storing fresh food donations from food donors in the local food and grocery supply chains.

4.4 2009-2010 Establishing a Food Banking Operation

4.4.1 Physical Operations

In April 2009, the newly appointed manager for Reclink Tasmania suggested that SecondBite could share their office space in Davey St, Hobart, which was subsequently rented by SecondBite. However, there was no warehouse space until the later stages of 2009, when the present warehouse location in Glenorchy was rented from the St Vincent De Paul organisation. There was no refrigeration nor commercial cool room space in the new warehouse, a situation which created logistical problems with food deliveries having to go out as they arrived (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August). To partly overcome this problem, a local in-kind donor business ('ESKI Ice') loaned some of their cool room space and then later donated a small refrigerator to SecondBite. Similarly, there was no refrigerated vehicle for making food deliveries until the first one was purchased in Melbourne in July 2009. An interim measure was employed when the St Vincent De Paul's 'Louis Van' (i.e. a food van serving homeless and disadvantaged people free meals in the evenings) was not required by them through the day and was used by SecondBite. Funding for a part-time driver for this vehicle was found through the agency of John Klug of the Brighton Council, from the abovementioned TCF. Further there was no forklift truck, until March 2010 when an unwanted one was sourced from SecondBite Victoria.

4.4.2 Food Recipients

Prior to the advent of food banking in Tasmania in 2009 there was more reliance on welfare provider organisations (e.g. Launceston Benevolent Society, The Salvation Army) which offer a broader range of emergency relief services than just food (e.g. housing relief and so on). These local charitable organisations could now receive food from SecondBite free of charge and divert some of their resources to other uses (e.g. emergency housing relief). As these organisations already offered alternative products and services to food bank hampers (which consisted of donated surplus food) such as the issuance of food vouchers to clients; food purchased on behalf of clients; and food sourced directly from food donors without the assistance of a food bank), it was the job of SecondBite's first manager to incorporate their products into the existing local social welfare organisations arrangements. The support of these charitable organisations was needed because the food banks including SecondBite did not deal directly with the public. Therefore, another critical event was the establishment of a system of recruiting, training and registering the suitably qualified intermediary charities, and the task of their ongoing management, not only as clients but also as the downstream channels of redistribution that formed one half of the food banks logistical operations (i.e. downstream 'channels of redistribution'). Only charities that complied with food handling and safety standards received donated food. Starting with the recruitment of the Salvation Army and then Centacare in June in 2009, after a series of meetings and the use of the networks (already mentioned), from 2009 a much larger number of charities were recruited (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 6 September). Additional resources, including donated food and human resources, were then required.

4.4.3 Staffing

According to business diary entries (accessed on 6 August 2014), in April 2009, the SecondBite management actively sought volunteers and interviewed prospects. The first SecondBite volunteer recruited was a consultant with Tasmania Prison Service (or TPS) in March 2009, again through community organisation contacts. This led to a long-term association with Department of Community Corrections and the TPS (which remained in place as of 2015). In May 2009, other volunteers sourced included a new volunteer driver using their own vehicle for collections from Pete's Patch. In June 2009, the first warehouse and driver volunteer was employed and assisted in logistical and warehouse tasks. In addition to hands-on volunteers, a range of brand ambassadors, advisors and in-kind consultants were gradually recruited. For example, in June 2009 a government employee technical expert was recruited as a volunteer to give advice on food safety issues. Later on, coinciding with the impending opening of Foodbank Tasmania Incorporated, which was to have a local board of management, a Tasmanian Advisory Committee (TAC) was formed. The aforementioned technical food safety role was then formalised as a TAC member. The further development of the TAC occurred and is described later on (Respondent A, pers. comm., 6 August).

4.4.4 Food donor recruitment

An equally pressing concern for SecondBite management to recruiting suitable volunteers was sourcing consistently high quality and quantities of fresh food donations. In May 2009, SecondBite was actively seeking donors of fresh food (referred to by SecondBite as food 'procurement' activities) and once again the Rotary connection came to the fore. The following are only a few selected examples of the different types of food donors that were recruited in the early years. One of the earliest grower/producer donors was the founder of Qew Orchards, Heather Chong who was also a Rotarian and who donated fresh apricots. In September 2009,

Robert Parkes Orchards donated apples and a farmer's markets peak body formed a relationship with SecondBite; in November of 2009 Nichols Poultry of Sassafras (in Northern Tasmania) became the first donor from outside of the greater Hobart region; in October 2010, Lion Nathan started donating dairy products. New donor recruitment resulted from relationship-building field visits (including outside of Hobart) that had begun as early as 2009. However, according to the SecondBite manager, when visiting many farmers and growers it was noted that there were low levels of awareness of the option of sending surplus food to food banks instead of landfill (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 6 August) which at the time was a barrier to higher level of donations.

4.4.5 Early Phase of Regular Supermarket Collections

A key event following the Civil Liability Law amendment (and the first donations from key Rotarians and food business identities) was the establishment of regular coordinated collections of larger volumes of donated fresh food from growers and supermarkets (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 6 August). In March of 2009, a senior Woolworths Ltd supermarket (hereafter 'Woolworths') executive met with SecondBite management and by July that year discussions were underway for a collaboration between SecondBite and Woolworths involving regular food collections from Woolworth's. Meanwhile SecondBite had been 'courting' both Coles and Woolworths supermarkets about regular collections of food donations but subsequently dealt with Woolworths (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 6 August). Regular collections from four Woolworth's stores began immediately, but on 6 November 2009 these collections were marked by a media launch at Woolworths where an announcement about Tasmanian Government funding for the collaborative effort was made to the media. However, soon after, in May 2010, discussions about a national arrangement with Coles and SecondBite had begun. By August 2010, planning for the arrangement was taking place on a national basis. Soon after,

however, Woolworth's informed SecondBite of its decision to only support Foodbank Australia Incorporated.

In the earlier years of collaboration, SecondBite had to 'educate' not only welfare agency recipients to receive food, but also donors including supermarket donors how to donate food, as follows. In both the earlier Woolworths and the later Coles collaborations ('Coles Community Food' and 'Coles Community Connect with SecondBite'), issues of food quality and/or quantities arose. In other words, from the food bank's side of these relationships, according to SecondBite management (and during an interview on 29 October 2014, SecondBite Queensland management concurred) (Respondent H 2014, pers. comm., 29 October), the ongoing process of managing individual supermarket behaviours was necessary because: (1) some donations were virtually food scraps, and (2) it was sometimes inexplicable why donation levels from particular stores were non-existent or diminishing (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 19 September). By 2010 (when Woolworths was no longer supporting SecondBite and the Coles collaboration became more established) the quality and timeliness of donations had improved, but the overall issue of managing supply and demand around food surpluses (i.e. matching availability from supermarkets with requests from welfare agencies) remained ongoing for SecondBite and was found (as a result of interviews with FareShare managers) to be a common problem for other food banks (Respondent F 2014, pers. comm., 20 October).

4.4.6 Food Recipients and Community Food Programs

This period saw the emergence and growth of more formalised welfare agency redistribution channels, such as the Emergency Food Relief Outreach Service (EFROS) in 2010, along with SecondBite's Community Food Program activities, that are briefly described as follows.

4.4.6.1 Emergency Food Relief Outreach Service

EFROS – which effectively is a partnership between SecondBite (as a supplier of food hampers) and the welfare agencies' outreach workers (who identify a need in the field) - emerged in 2010.

This new Tasmanian program evolved into a structured, ongoing service to welfare agencies and by 2013 was servicing 27 food programs. EFROS provided the basis for a new venture, the Healthy Hampers Project, which is described later on below. In addition to food hampers another, albeit smaller, SecondBite activity was the redistribution of meals sourced from different parts of the supply chain than just supermarkets.

4.4.6.2 Meal collections

SecondBite's earliest systematic collection of finished meals was in July 2009 from the Source Restaurant at Moorilla Estate winery (now a part of the MONA Museum complex). The restaurant's head chef had initiated a program to turn surpluses into meals for 30 people and these were then redistributed by SecondBite to Bethlehem House (a homeless shelter for men) (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 19 September). While finished meals were not the main stay of SecondBite's model there have been several forays into this area. Various meal programs, such as in-school breakfast and in-school meal production, had their informal beginnings as early as February of 2009 (e.g. at Goulbourn St Primary School, Hobart). From these early forays, two main types of in-school meal programs were developed and these are briefly described as follows.

4.4.6.3 In-school meal production (later 'SecondBite in Schools')

Geilston Bay High School was a food recipient involved in the Food Connections Clarence Project. Its students used food donated by SecondBite to provide the ingredients needed for cooking class students to turn donated produce into finished meals. SecondBite then assisted in the redistribution of these meals through the local community houses in the Clarence region (with which they already have recipient partnership arrangements and whom comply with food safety regulations). Another aspect of the same project (again, using SecondBite donations) involved 'Chat and Chew', where students visited, and served fresh meals to, elderly citizens in the local area. Another school, Montrose Bay High School started a program where SecondBite provides fresh food to the school (and informs participants of SecondBite's food handling standards, etc.) from which the students produce finished frozen meals. These meals are then redistributed by SecondBite as a part of their EFROS (see above) and other food hamper products. These were fairly small ventures. SecondBite had looked at expanding the model (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 23 September) but, in any event, the programs had gained favourable publicity for SecondBite, with local newspapers reporting very positively on such ventures (e.g. see Martin 2014).

4.4.6.4 Community gardens

SecondBite had made several attempts to integrate into local communities while also diversifying its food supply options. This was done through several community gardening projects, commencing in 2010 (and more again in 2015). The main two projects, where SecondBite's was closely involved, were partnerships with the Tasmanian Prison Service (TPS) and the Royal Tasmanian Botanical Gardens (RTBG). Both of these projects can be traced back to two corresponding early partnerships mentioned in previous sections. The first association with the RTBG and 'Pete's Patch' in 2008, mentioned earlier, had later evolved

into a new venture at the RTBG operated by the Tasmanian Community Food Garden Association (TCFGA). SecondBite was a founding member of the TCFGA. Pete's patch was redeveloped and now community organisations and schools have access to both a garden patch and expert advice. The intention being that participants could apply new ideas and techniques back in their own community or school gardens. Surplus produce from the main garden was collected and returned to SecondBite by a team of SecondBite volunteers. Another long-standing SecondBite partnership with the Tasmanian Prison Service (TPS) and the Department of Community Corrections (also a source of volunteer labour) led to the development of a food garden at Risdon Prison in 2010. The purpose of the garden was to provide an avenue for prisoners to learn and participate as a part of their prison rehabilitation or education programs. The surplus produce is collected and redistributed by SecondBite. Once again, in addition to any potential psychological and physical benefits that these programs provided, SecondBite had received positive media coverage (e.g. in November 2013, the TPS garden featured on the ABC TV's '7.30 Report'). SecondBite was also a partner in the Waterbridge Coop Project which involves a small social enterprise component. In addition to in-school programs and the community garden projects, SecondBite aimed to deliver food nutrition and education courses.

4.4.6.5 Nutrition education

In 2010, PULSE Youth (a Tasmanian Government youth organisation), Anglicare and SecondBite, began discussions about a subsequent pilot of the SecondBite Victoria version of the Food Angels program being implemented in Tasmania. This course evolved into 'foodMATE' which was a ten-week nutrition information course for the individual recipients (end-users) of donated food. In May 2011 a course called SNAP also developed by SecondBite later evolved into 'Fresh NED' (Fresh Food Nutritional Education). This course was intended for the frontline case workers of welfare agencies (not the recipients). However, the funding

and therefore delivery of these food courses remained unclear for several years after (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 23 September). Examples of other activities (not further described at this point) undertaken by SecondBite included: a foray into catering event food rescue in 2010, a specialised field developed more fully by OzHarvest (mentioned earlier) undertaken by SecondBite from time to time (e.g. at the Falls Festival); and the ongoing donation of unusable food (SecondBite's own operational food waste) to farmers (from 2009) and to other organisations such as Bonorong Park animal farm for animal feed (albeit commencing later in December 2013). Animal feed and landfill were the only options when food was unable to be used by SecondBite. From early on there had been food waste collected on a regular basis by a local pig farmer. However, environmental initiatives were not a priority (except that for the first time in 2013 the separation of some food packaging recyclables was implemented).

4.5 2010-2014 Consolidation and State-wide Expansion

4.5.1 Emergence of 'Food Hubs'

SecondBite's state-wide expansion of food redistribution services into rural and regional areas of Tasmania began as far back as late 2009 with the opening of the Huonville food hub. Put simply, a food hub is a 'sub-contracted' not-for-profit distribution channel: An outlet where a food bank makes regular deliveries and from which local charities and community organisations pick up food (and either use it themselves or further redistribute it on behalf of the food bank). The hub may vary from a formal food establishment (e.g. a food enterprise that is providing SecondBite with in-kind services), to less formal arrangements such as the local Member of Parliament's office (i.e. in the Sorell hub). (N.B. Many politicians had supported SecondBite - and still did as at 2015 - with Federal Member of Parliament Andrew Wilkie becoming a SecondBite supporter in 2011). The Huonville food hub grew organically and was

initially managed by The Rotary Club of Huonville. This arrangement came about due to the existing strong connection between SecondBite and Rotary that was mentioned earlier. Food was delivered to the local community centre and Rotarian volunteers would then redistribute the food to local charities. The model changed in 2012, with the Salvation Army taking control. This involved the food deliveries being sent from SecondBite weekly to the Salvation Army's warehouse in Huonville, with the recipient charities now collecting the food for themselves.

The second food hub, the Kingborough food hub was officially launched in 2013, but had previously existed in various other forms since around 2011. This hub is run by the Kingston Life Church and operates roughly the same as the Huonville hub. The third southern hub in Sorell started as a result of the Tasman Peninsula bush fires and the resulting devastation at centres such as Dunalley in January 2013. The Sorell hub is a drop off centre where community based organisations, including Copping Christian Care, in the Sorell/Tasman Peninsula region collect their food. (By 2015 there were 12 of these of these hubs in Tasmania including 8 in the northern and rural regions and four in the southern region, including the first one established at Huonville) (see Figure 5.1 in Appendix D). The Launceston operation which is discussed below, services the eight food hubs in the North, North West Coast, Launceston and upper East Coast (or broadly speaking the northern half of the state). In order of the year of establishment these are Devonport Community House and Burnie Community house in around 2010; Ulverstone Community House in 2011; Heaven's Kitchen in 2012 and hubs at Fingal, St Helens, Georgetown in 2013. The eighth hub in the Northwest Coast is Produce to the People (2014), which is also a food bank in its own right. Following a period of some tension from around 2010, in 2014 a degree of collaboration and sharing of surpluses between SecondBite, Produce to the People and Foodbank Tasmania Incorporated had commenced (some detail of which is described later on).

4.5.2 Opening of the Launceston Branch

As indicated by the growth of food hubs, 2011 was a critical time in the state-wide expansion of SecondBite's products and services that led to a new system of supermarket food collection and regional food redistribution. This system began to emerge when SecondBite commenced operations in Launceston in 2011. Earlier still, the idea of expansion to Launceston was first raised in meetings during February of 2010 (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 23 September). In comparison with Foodbank which operated out of Hobart, and Produce to the People which was located in and serviced the north-west region, SecondBite continued with a strategy of becoming a state-wide operation. The establishment of the Launceston operation was a key event in SecondBite's state-wide expansion. This came about as a result of SecondBite management wishing to have a physical presence in the northern region of Tasmania due to: (1) the demand for SecondBite services and products in the 'north'; (2) the majority of large food donors, especially growers (e.g. Harvest Moon) are located there; and overall (3) during an interview held in Hobart on 1 September 2014 with senior SecondBite management, the initiative was stated as strategically important to SecondBite's brand and growth (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 1 September). The process involved in establishing the Launceston operation was to: (1) source funding from the Tasmanian Community Fund – which was initially rejected, resulting in meetings with MPs and the issue being raised in the Tasmanian Parliament, before success was achieved), and (2) building relationships and procuring food to make the operation immediately feasible. While the idea was mooted and acted upon locally, it required and gained approval by the SecondBite board (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 1 September). The result was a newly opened Launceston operation which subsequently was shared with the Launceston Benevolent Society. This Society, as already mentioned, is itself a different form of food bank (or more accurately, a food pantry), collecting food from Coles Supermarkets (for example) and collaborating with SecondBite Launceston to manage peaks

and troughs in both parties' incoming food donations. This arrangement came about because on 31 October 2011, when the Coles Community Food, namely the Community Connect relationship in Launceston began there was no established SecondBite physical presence (i.e. warehouse). As a result, SecondBite used charity intermediaries; the Launceston City Mission and the Benevolent Society to pick up food from Coles Supermarkets. This arrangement is not uncommon in food banking and was, broadly speaking, also the case in various locations in Australia where SecondBite had opened operations during 2013 and 2014 (e.g. the Northern Territory).

SecondBite in Launceston had, by late 2014, evolved into SecondBite's major distribution centre servicing Hobart with bulk food donations from major northern based farm gate donors (e.g. Harvest Moon, Field Fresh and Charlton Farms). However, the Launceston operation could not function as a state-wide distribution centre without the in-kind support it received, especially from transport operators and logistics experts. In the next section a brief history of the establishment, and the nature of, this in-kind support received by SecondBite is described. The section begins with distribution partnerships and then goes on to describe other forms of support. In July 2009, talks with Tolls Transport and in March 2010 with Linfox (mediated through a then SecondBite volunteer and former Linfox employee) about seeking in-kind support were fruitless (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 23 September). While these attempts failed to result in any ongoing partnerships, more success was achieved (once again through Rotary connections) that were still in place in 2015. These included, among others: State-wide Refrigerated Transport (or SRT), Costa Logistics (Coles Supermarkets fresh food logistics partner) and CHEP (a logistical equipment company). Starting with State-wide Refrigerated Transport (SRT) the strong association with Rotary was an important factor in establishing this relationship. In July 2010 SecondBite management gave a presentation to the Rotary Club of Huonville where a Rotarian suggested having a talk with SRT owner Rob Millar. The

conversation with Millar resulted in the supply, *pro-bono*, of the north-south transportation of food donations (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 23 September). According to senior operations management at SecondBite (in an interview held in Launceston on 12 November 2014), the arrangement was based on an informal agreement that where and when space permits, food would be transported from Burnie, Devonport and Launceston to Hobart SRT's depot in Bridgewater for pick up by SecondBite); and from Launceston to Melbourne, free of any charge (Respondent O 2014, pers. comm., 12 November).

4.5.3 Servicing the Food Supply Chain's Needs

SecondBite pursued the support of local food supply chain members more vigorously in 2010. Costa Logistics were approached by SecondBite to enquire about the food they were still sending to landfill. Costa management were pleased to accommodate SecondBite by sending food to SRT, rather than to landfill (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October). SRT, as already mentioned, would then forward the food to Launceston and Hobart. Also, large growers such as Harvest Moon and Premium Fresh were willing to assist by sending their surplus food (which was at this point in time largely going to landfill) to SRT. However, one barrier to doing so more frequently was a lack of resources, such as food handling bins and pallets. This problem was overcome when in August 2010 a relationship with CHEP resulted in the supply on a loan basis of second hand bins for on-farm collections. In an interview held in Hobart on 13 August 2014, a senior SecondBite manager stated that this was 'the impetus of significant increased volumes of farm gate collections' (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October). In other words, bulk bins were now left on-farm for filling with food surpluses at the donor's convenience, and then collected and further distributed by SRT. According to the Operations Manager (mentioned above), initially the CHEP bins were not well managed but an improved

pallet tracking system was implemented that saw CHEP, SRT and SecondBite all more effectively working together by 2014 (Respondent O 2014, pers. comm., 12 November).

In September 2011, the national partnership between SecondBite and Coles mentioned earlier was formally announced in the national media. Following this the then GM and the Key Account Manager of SecondBite came to Tasmania for talks with local Coles Supermarket management. Despite the absence of infrastructure in Launceston (mentioned already), in October 2011, a trial roll-out of the Coles Supermarkets partnership began in Launceston. This was followed by meetings with local store management in Hobart in November 2011. As a part of the planning for the partnership there was a formal training program put in place and the risks involved (e.g. reputational and branding risks for SecondBite) were discussed. The program involved Coles Supermarkets Regional Area Managers training their store-level managers and using coaching cards, posters, and other materials along with follow-up visits to encourage local stores to adopt the preferred donating behaviours. By 2012, when the Coles Supermarkets' Sorell store in Southern Tasmania opened, the 'Coles Community Connect with SecondBite' model was in full operation (initially through the community organisation, Copping Christian Care). 'Community Connect' was the means by which Coles Supermarkets directly donated food to charities (as was always the case), but now with the support of SecondBite as an intermediary in the arrangements.

4.5.4 Growth in the Workforce

A critical event in the development of the SecondBite workforce was marked by the creation of the new position of Respondent B in 2011 (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October). Early in 2011 a new warehouse manager role was formed in Launceston and later that year a new Hobart warehouse manager was appointed. However, it was the volunteer workforce that showed the largest increase (from one in 2008 to around sixty in 2014). In 2014, the recruitment

of volunteers had become partly managed by a contractor with the signing of the MAX Employment deal (see MAX Employment 2015). SecondBite now dealt with one main supplier of volunteer labour. At this time there was a strong emphasis on food logistics and compiling and despatching food hampers. Meanwhile, other types of volunteers, included ambassadors, such as media and cooking personality Elaine Reeves (who had written for local newspaper 'The Mercury' since the establishment of SecondBite). Reeves had provided positive coverage of SecondBite in various newspaper articles. She also introduced Ivy Chung, a well-known Hobart restaurateur and provedore, to SecondBite in 2010. Chung commenced as a volunteer in a procurement capacity and used her food industry contacts in a number of ways to support SecondBite, for example to source food and fill shortfalls. Chung also acted in an unofficial capacity as an adviser and has been as a source of knowledge and experience, assisting both SecondBite's donor and recipient clients. For example, on one occasion, according to a senior SecondBite manager interviewed on 1 September 2014, a food donor who also was starting a new restaurant venture had called into SecondBite's offices and Chung had advised them and placed them in contact with suitable suppliers (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 1 September). Another type of volunteer was recruited from various food and other organisations into advisory roles.

After discussions about the Tasmanian 'political landscape' and the opening of Foodbank Tasmania Incorporated (which was governed locally), SecondBite management thought that setting up a local advisory committee would be a prudent strategy. In 2009, a formal volunteer-based Tasmanian Advisory Committee (TAC) was formed and the members were hand-picked by Respondent A including those from his own personal and professional network (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October). Volunteers that were consulted and subsequently joined the TAC included Kevin Todeschini a 'business mentor' who had initially advised on food safety issues. Others were Heather Chong (as mentioned already), Phillip Capon, a restaurateur,

Charles Cook (a Rotarian, also previously mentioned) and John Ramsay a consultant and retired senior public servant. The first meeting of the TAC was held in Hobart in May 2010. The model employed by SecondBite had by now resulted in mainly collecting surplus fresh food from multiple sources in local food supply chains and redistributing this food as food hampers through the agency of social welfare organisations. The state-wide expansion of this logistical operation was in place as early as 2010 (and was still ongoing by late 2015).

4.6 2014 to 2015

4.6.1 Physical Operations Consolidation

In contrast with the more 'ad-hoc' operations described earlier (in 2010), by 2014, there was according to the Operations Manager interviewed on 12 November 2014, a more sophisticated relationship management and logistics plan in place, with the larger donor and key logistics relationships management function centralised and incorporated into an existing manager's role in Launceston (Respondent O 2014, pers. comm., 12 November). Efficiencies were also introduced in Hobart, such as improved daily collection and delivery runs, which were now more integrated and completed in four days rather than five. In addition to efficiency measures and the improved in-kind partner relationship management, by November 2014, the physical distribution infrastructure now consisted of a modest but more workable arrangement of two warehouses complete with walk-in commercial cool stores, multiple food hubs around the state, a fleet of five refrigerated vans, a new refrigerated truck, and two forklift trucks, described briefly as follows.

Between the two main warehouses there were two main modes of logistics and distribution (or 'food forwarding') employed by SecondBite. These were: (1) warehouse runs: the daily delivery and collection of food and its packaging, and (2) centralised warehousing and

redistribution of food and its packaging. The first function occurred in both of SecondBite's warehouses, but in the case of the Hobart warehouse, more food donations were received from food retailers and wholesalers compared with the Launceston (northern warehouse). While Launceston had a warehouse run schedule (e.g. to food hubs), unlike Hobart, it collected larger volumes of food from farm gate donors than from the food retailers. The farm gate donors by now included Charlton Farms (onions), Harvest Moon (cauliflowers), Premium Fresh (carrots), Coles Distribution Centre (DC) (various) and others. The run was by now highly organised and scheduled to fit in with the food donor operating environments and SecondBite was sometimes afforded a priority service (Respondent O 2014, pers. comm., 12 November). So too was the Hobart 'warehouse run' more sophisticated; going from more ad-hoc, with recipient agencies picking and choosing from bulk food packed into the delivery van, to orders being preselected and pre-packed for each recipient. There was, however, still some negotiation between the driver and the recipients about what portion of their food order the recipient actually wanted. While Hobart sometimes redistributed food northwards to Launceston, the flow of donated food mainly ran from the northwest and north, to the south. In both centres, the collection of food from donors occurred either directly from the donor (supermarket store, farm, market, etc.) or its distribution centre, or from the depot of a third party logistics provider in the supply chain. The development of these third party arrangements (with in-kind supporters) was outlined above.

In 2015, a new refrigerated truck was funded by way of a Tasmanian Community Fund grant which allowed for the replacement of a smaller refrigerated van (then moved to Hobart). Whereas previously, using the smaller van, it took multiple trips over 2.5 days to undertake the farm gate run in the northwest of the state, the same volume of food was now collected in 3.5 hours. Another advantage of the new truck was that by the completion of the run on a Thursday, the truck was packed ready to drive to Hobart the next morning with a delivery of food. Using

the truck in this way took some pressure of the aforementioned SRT in-kind arrangement. Also, the truck was sometimes used to assist Foodbank Tasmania in moving food to Hobart (it had no operation in the north of the state as of late 2015). SecondBite had assisted Foodbank from time to time in this manner (Respondent O 2014, pers. comm., 12 November) and it was also common for the food banks to share any oversupply of food donations with each other. However, by now the issue of collaboration and/or competition among food banks became a more pressing issue both for SecondBite and the Tasmanian Government, as followed.

4.6.2 Food Bank Collaboration and Competition

In addition to the ongoing and increased support of the food industries (by now, mainly Coles Supermarkets and the northwest growers) SecondBite was to receive Tasmanian Government recurrent funding. One condition of the government funding was that the two major Tasmanian food banks (each by now participating in different food retailer supply chains in Tasmania) collaborate to improve outcomes in food redistribution in Tasmania. In this regard, the main critical event was the emergence of the 'Healthy Hampers' project which was an evolution and extension of the Emergency Food Relief Outreach Service (EFROS) started by SecondBite, as mentioned earlier. Healthy Hampers involved the distribution of food hampers (under certain conditions) that had to contain both fresh food (from SecondBite) and staple pantry items (from Foodbank) with the aim of increasing food hamper quality. The collaboration went ahead with an MOU signing, and the project officially commenced in 2014. However, despite the collaborative efforts the much larger Foodbank Australia organisation continued to receive more Tasmanian Government funding for its Tasmanian operations. While in 2014 SecondBite remained well-connected as a result of tis earlier networking a (for example, in August 2011, the Labour - Green Tasmanian government released its report 'Coming in from the Cold' and

SecondBite was especially invited to comment upon and then participate in subsequent policy formation), Foodbank had itself by now become well-established and influential.

4.6.3 Recurrent Funding and Institutionalisation of the Tasmanian Food Banking Sector

In October 2014, the Department of Premier and Cabinet (DPAC 2014) had released a report titled 'Emergency Food Relief' (EFR) and, as a result of submissions received by all food banks and consultation with other stakeholder organisations, made the following recommendations. In short, the recommendations were that food banks in Tasmania continue to receive funding on the condition that they continue to collaborate (i.e. continue with Healthy Hampers), avoid duplication and reduce inefficiencies in the delivery of their services; find self-supporting revenue streams; and address issues relating to the nutritional aspects of EFR (DPAC 2014).

Further, during this period, Foodbank Tasmania indicated that it planned to enter the fresh food redistribution 'market' which was then controlled by SecondBite (under the terms of an MOU) in Tasmania, but was facing institutional hurdles including Tasmanian food quarantine laws. In summary of this last part of the chapter, a 'Surplus Food Redistribution' system had emerged in which both the Tasmanian Government and food banks and food retailers now played a role, and while SecondBite had played a key role in its establishment, the larger Foodbank Tasmania also secured (higher levels of) government funding, and was looking to expand and to increase its range of products and services in Tasmania. Whereas SecondBite had already expanded state-wide and had in late 2015 moved into the north-western region of Tasmania nearer its larger farm gate donors it was now looking (through FareShare Victoria's model) to add more value to its food products and services by producing 'ready' meals and not just food hampers. Meetings between FareShare and SecondBite about implementing the FareShare value-adding model in Tasmania were ongoing in 2015. At this time, SecondBite was now more closely collaborating with Coles Supermarkets and had participated in a SecondBite and Coles

Supermarket fund raising event (in Glenorchy) specifically for the purposes of promoting the Coles Supermarket and SecondBite Tasmania partnership.

4.7 Summary of Critical Events

As this chapter comes to a conclusion, the following summarised chronology is provided with regard to the evolution of SecondBite and the food logistics, food supply chain and socio-political events relating to SecondBite's eventual social, political and food supply chain integration described in the chapter. Table 4.3 below shows, from the point of view of SecondBite, the different situations faced and the responses to them since 2008.

Table 4.3 Timeline of various situations facing the food bank and the subsequent outcomes

Year	Situation	Response
2008	No protection for donors from legal liability arising from food donations	Introduction of Civil Liability Amendment Act in 2008 after lobbying by SecondBite.
2009	Regular collection of surplus food is restricted mostly to bread runs by charities and their volunteers	Regular collections from supermarkets commenced by SecondBite in Southern Tasmania
2009	Produce from diverse sources such as 'Pete's Patch' at RTBG is being composted not donated	Produce from such sites now redistributed to charities by SecondBite
2009	Only ad-hoc donations of surplus food by manufacturers, distributors and producers	Surplus food from farms, community gardens and distributors now collected on a regular basis
2009	No food rescue in the north west	Produce to the People commences operations in North West Tasmania
2009	Food Security not even on the Tasmanian political agenda	Tasmanian Social Inclusion Commissioner appointed - places food security on the political agenda
2009	Emergency Food Relief (EFR) consists mainly of vouchers and pantry items	Regular access to free fresh food becomes available at EFR outlets
2009	No formal discussion on food security	Food Security Council established
2010	No evidence of nutrition programs in food banks	SecondBite Food Angels pilot commences with Anglicare and PULSE Glenorchy
2010	Costa Logistics (Coles fresh food logistics company), Harvest Moon, Premium Fresh and others sending produce to landfill	SRT began freighting this produce to Hobart for SecondBite to redistribute

2010	No Foodbank presence in Tasmania	Foodbank commences operations at Cambridge
2011	No redistribution of surplus food in the north of the state	SecondBite commence Community Connect with Coles utilising two local welfare agencies
2011	No systematic supermarket collections	SecondBite Community Connect with Coles and Produce to the People commence such collections
2011	No food redistribution service in Launceston	SecondBite commences operations in Launceston
2011	No funding opportunities related to food security	'Food for All Tasmanians' funding announced
2012	Little food banking representation in political circles (portfolios)	MPs, the Premier and the welfare sector now consulting with and dealing directly with SecondBite Tasmania
2013	Lack of food bank resources for managing relationships with valuable donor partners	Relatively more organised relationships with in-kind supporters, especially Costa (Coles), SRT, CHEP
2013	No systematic state-wide distribution of fresh food donations	Re-designed system, with Launceston now a central distribution centre
2014	No QMS, environmental policies or EMS	Basic waste recycling program emerges
2014	Ad-hoc rather than systematic exchange of donated food between food banks	SecondBite Launceston commence deliveries of farm gate produce from North West Coast 'food bowl', to SecondBite Melbourne
2014	A lack of formalised, systematic collaboration between food banks	Healthy Hampers commences: a collaboration between SecondBite, Foodbank and the Tas. Govt.
2014	Recurrent funding for emergency food relief programs in Tasmania.	SecondBite becomes the first SecondBite branch to receive recurrent govt. funding (but at a lower rate than expected and compared with Foodbank Tasmania)
2015	Foodbank not present in northern Tasmania	SecondBite offers northern facility sharing arrangement. Foodbank pursues own arrangements

4.8 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter first provided some case context by way of a brief outline of the operating models of the four main food banking organisations in Australia. The growth in the activities of food banking in Australia was indicated with regard to the example of SecondBite and the subsequent emergence and growth of the case study organisation. The chapter then detailed the

key events between 2008 and 2015 in SecondBite Tasmania's history with regard to describing activities which, roughly speaking, emerged as 'phases' of: (1) formation and social-political influencing (2) developing formalised social channels of food redistribution (3) establishing logistical capability (4) collaborating with the supply chain, eventually in collaboration with Coles Supermarkets ('Coles Community Food with SecondBite') (5) state-wide expansion and further alignment with, and adaptation to, the food and grocery supply chain's specific needs and (6) the delivery of relatively more sophisticated value-adding products and services (e.g. Healthy Hampers) for the Tasmanian Government funders and the social welfare organisation's needs, while (7) developing its own Community Food Program and exploring new ventures (e.g. potentially new value-adding ventures with FareShare). The chapter then provided a table summarising the above as a chronology of critical events that saw SecondBite Tasmania establish itself more broadly over time as not just part of the supply chains of the food donors but, also, as a part of the Tasmanian 'Food Redistribution System' (which included attaining recurrent Tasmanian Government funding, which was indicative of the institutionalisation of food banking in Tasmania). The next chapter draws upon this chapter's critical events in order to address the research questions posed at the end of Chapter Two.

Chapter Five

5.0 Results

5.1 Chapter Objectives

The objectives of this chapter are three-fold. Firstly, to address the first research question, it presents an analysis of the SecondBite Tasmania case data (the last chapter's chronology) to determine the critical processes relating to its strategic integration into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain over time. Secondly, to address the second research question, it will present an analysis of the shared-value emphasised by the management of SecondBite as part of their integration into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain. Thirdly, based on this analysis, this chapter presents (1) a process model depicting how SecondBite integrated into the for-profit food and grocery supply chain in Tasmania, and a resulting (2) 'surplus food supply chain' showing 'cascading shared value' flowing from food donors (upstream) to social welfare recipients (downstream).

5.2 The Process of SecondBite's Supply Chain Integration

In terms of the first research question; what strategic priorities are evident for a not-for-profit foodbank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain? The following sections details the strategic priorities evident in the data.

Analysis of the primary and secondary data gathered in this study identified seven areas given priority in SecondBite's strategic integration into the for-profit food and grocery supply chain in Tasmania. These seven factors were: (1) agitation for institutional change, (2) engaging with local food and grocery supply chain members, (3) gaining resources through multiple-sector support, (4) creating value-based activities and relationships, (5) reconfiguring operational

activities to deliver value to the food and grocery supply chain, (6) closer collaborations with particular supply chain members, and (7) non-members. Each of these strategic priorities will be discussed in turn in the following sections.

5.2.1 Agitation for Institutional Change

The reasons for SecondBite's emergence in Tasmania were attributed to SecondBite's rate of growth and competitive strategy. SecondBite Tasmania emerged because neither Foodbank Australia, which had long-since grown into a much larger national organisation, nor the other 'majors' were yet to have a physical, permanent presence in Tasmania. In an interview held on 8 August 2014, a senior SecondBite Tasmania manager stated that:

> The decision to expand was made first and then a location sought. While alternative locations such as Adelaide were considered Hobart was decided upon (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 8 August).

Prior to 2008, Foodbank Australia had been involved in sporadic food relief activities in Tasmania, but from a distance. For example, The Mercury newspaper had reported that:

> The Salvation Army, Foodbank Australia and Australian Pork Limited initiative will distribute one and a half tonnes of pork product for Salvation Army Christmas Day lunches at Burnie, New Town and George Town (The Mercury 2007, p. 11).

Despite its much smaller size nationally, SecondBite had formed a physical presence in Tasmania and established important political and other contacts. Foodbank subsequently did not establish regular coordinated food redistribution activities in Tasmania until around 2010.

5.2.1.1 Agitating for Change to the Civil Liability Act 2002

SecondBite management took measures to overcome institutional barriers to food banking in the region which inhibited food donating behaviours; whilst local food donors did not require protection from potential legal liability arising from the consumption of donated food, SecondBite managers believed (from experience in the USA and Australia) that the effect of

such legislation was to '…increase private sector in-kind donations to charities serving the poor' (Akron Food Bank 2014, p. 1). In Australia, FareShare described the situation in the following way:

> While many businesses were keen to provide FareShare with their surplus food, legal barriers prevented many of them from doing so…in 2002 FareShare teamed up with the Law Institute of Victoria and successfully lobbied the Victorian Government to introduce Australia's first Good Samaritan law... (FareShare 2016, p. 1).

OzHarvest effected similar changes in NSW in 2005, resulting in a claim of '…changing the face of food waste in Australia' (OzHarvest 2016, p. 1). Therefore, the first management efforts in establishing SecondBite (and the subsequent food banking industry sector in Tasmania), was to successfully lobby for changes to the *Tasmanian Civil Liability Act 2002*. The resulting *Civil Liability Amendment Act 2008* allowed for the protection of food donors from legal liability for food donors providing that:

> (a) the food donor donated the food (i) in good faith for a charitable or benevolent purpose; and (ii) with the intention that the consumer of the food would not have to pay for the food; and (b) the food was safe to consume at the time it left the possession or control of the food donor (Civil Liability Amendment Act 2008, 8B 35F)

Equally importantly, the process of lobbying for institutional changes facilitated new relationships between SecondBite and the Tasmanian Government, including with parliamentarians from all sides of politics. The case data showed that meetings were held with nearly all State level politicians from 2008 to 2015, and with independent Federal MP Andrew Wilkie, and senior SecondBite management were present in the Tasmanian Parliament for the reading of the amendment Act:

> SecondBite Victoria was involved in the promotion and lobbying process and was consequently invited to attend parliament and to speak during the bill's introduction (SecondBite Tasmania 2009, p. 4).
>
> …the bill was celebrated at the time as one of, if not the quickest, to pass through the Tasmanian Parliament (SecondBite Tasmania 2009, p. 4).

Politicians were also seen to be closely associated with SecondBite; according to media reports:

> Tasmanian Minister for Human Services Lin Thorp said that under the partnership between Woolworths and not-for-profit group SecondBite, volunteers would collect fresh produce approaching its use-by date from supermarkets at Eastlands, Bridgewater, Lindisfarne, Glenorchy and Howrah (The Mercury 2009, p. 29).

According to a letter from SecondBite to The Greens Cassy O'Connor MP (then Secretary to the Cabinet) dated 1 November 2010, she had encouraged SecondBite to seek government funding:

> you asked us to submit a proposal to the Tasmanian State Government applying for funding that would assist SecondBite address the actions specified in the Tasmanian Homelessness Plan 2010 – 2013, *'Coming in from the cold'.* I have pleasure in submitting the attached funding submission for your consideration. (SecondBite 2010, pers. comm., 1 November).

Following the formation of relationships with MPs, other significant institutional changes were enacted; SecondBite secured the political support and the imprimatur to disrupt existing social welfare emergency food relief arrangements and gained access to public sources of funding (see Tables 5.1 and 5.2 later on). After first being rejected for funding of the new Launceston warehouse, Ministerial contacts were used. A senior manager of SecondBite stated that:

> When we tried to get TCF and other funding it was initially rejected resulting in meetings with MPs and then it was raised in [The Tasmanian] parliament…the funding then came through… (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 1 September).

5.2.1.2 Creating Demand

Social welfare organisations in Tasmania were already funded to provide emergency food relief services prior to the advent of food banking. SecondBite disrupted existing practices in local emergency food relief services in order to facilitate the emergent food banking arrangements. A marketing effort was required in order to create demand for SecondBite's services among *multiple stakeholder* groups: (1) social welfare organisations (potential food recipients), (2) governments and civilians (community organisations and individuals as potential volunteers and financial supporters), and (3) food businesses (i.e. potential food donors). The data revealed

that SecondBite began actively creating downstream demand for its products and services prior to procuring any significant, ongoing food donations from large supermarkets:

> To date, with limited resources the fledgling SecondBite operation has delivered over two tonne of food to a growing list of agencies all of whom are looking forward to the next stage of operation which is regular deliveries – especially of fresh fruit and vegetables, dairy products and meats as SecondBite commences collections from Coles, Woolworths and other retailers and wholesalers (SecondBite Tasmania 2009, p. 10).

To this end, the pamphlet 'What is Food Rescue and who are SecondBite?' contained the results of a SecondBite Victoria survey and the marketing message of:

> …diverting surplus food from landfill … To substantially reduce the current food bills of not for profit agencies so that funds can be diverted to other areas of need. To contribute to a reduction in greenhouse gas emissions. (SecondBite Tasmania 2009, p. 3).

SecondBite continued to make the business case in an undated circa 2013 letter to the Tasmanian Government benefit through the achievement of financial savings if it supported food banking:

> The emergence of the EFROS model is … possibly the most efficient and cost effective means of providing EFR to those being supported in the community. (SecondBite Tasmania undated, circa 2013, pers. comm.).

SecondBite had gained institutional momentum though the support of politicians, and had disrupted the existing food relief arrangements to become, according to the Tasmanian Government's Department of Premier and Cabinet (DPAC), a legitimated, government-backed provider of Emergency Food Relief Services in Tasmania:

> SecondBite is one of the top five emergency food relief brands nationally…With a commitment to sustainability and collaboration, SecondBite aims to increase food security for those who are most vulnerable while at the same time reducing landfill and the negative effects on the environment (DPAC 2014, p. 21).

However, despite the promotion of food banking and the financial incentive of food bank products and services being provided free-of-charge to charities, some resistance was

evidenced. Then CEO of the Tasmanian Council of Social Services, Tom Muller, commented to the media in 2008 about the arrival of food banking:

> The reality is that Tasmania has the highest rates of poverty in Australia at 16 per cent of the population, and the Premier has got to make a commitment to turn this situation around …the strategy was not a silver bullet to tackle poverty (Stedman 2008).

On the other hand, and similar to the case of the opening of SecondBite Queensland (SBQ) in 2012, it was stated by a senior SBQ manager, that some social welfare organisations could 'hardly believe' (Respondent H 2014, pers. comm., 29 October) that they were going to receive regular weekly deliveries of fresh food, free of charge. Further management effort was required to address the issues of: (1) the availability of food donations, and (2) the quality of incoming food donations, both without which the claims made by food banks would not be credible.

5.2.2 Engaging with Local Food and Grocery Supply Chain Members

Marketing communications via social networking started on a small scale in 2008, and then increased in scope and proactivity over following seven years of this study. As a part of this process, social networking occurred where both existing (e.g. Rotary and Reclink) and new local contacts (e.g. SRT Logistics) were kept informed about SecondBite's operations. These potential donors could offer surplus food both as a part of their business and community service obligations. At interview (16 August 2014), a senior SecondBite manager stated that:

> There was an opportunity to meet Rotarians who were involved in food logistics...at one meeting it was recommended we speak to Rob Millar who owns SRT Logistics. He came on board early on and very generously [is still] helping us [with in-kind logistical services] … (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 August).

SecondBite's reputation for effectively managing food surpluses grew, as evidenced by the media reports and the number of in-kind supporters within the local food and grocery supply chains similar to SRT that followed (e.g. CHEP). SecondBite promoted and reminded politicians (in a letter to an MP dated 2 July 2015) of such support:

> Consistently moving up to 70,000kg of produce around the state each month could not be accomplished without the in kind support from logistics companies such as SRT, Costas and CHEP. (SecondBite Tasmania 2015, pers. comm., 2 July).

Secondly, SecondBite became adept at accessing social networks outside of its food and grocery supply chain operating environment - to further build the good will it needed to lobby for other institutional changes. An example is the origins and nature of the relationship between the Tasmanian Prison Service (TPS) and SecondBite; a meeting about community gardening at the Risdonvale Community Centre/Neighbourhood House was attended by the TPS and SecondBite to explore the concept of a prison garden producing food to further engage low-security prisoners. A spin-off activity (i.e. 'Food on the Table') built goodwill and gained the support of high-profile Tasmanians including MPs not usually associated with food banking or food waste *per se* and filming for a story by ABC TV began on 11 November 2013. Thirdly, indirect pressure came to bear through the use of the media, firstly in general terms with regard to seeking food and equipment:

> SecondBite national manager Zoe Whyatt said another 200 Tasmanian community food programs would accept food from SecondBite if there was more to distribute. We are encouraging other food producers to get on board and donate rather than dump any surplus produce…There is waste at every point in the food system but there are other options which can provide healthy, nutritious meals to Tasmanians. (Kempton 2011a).

Specifically, SecondBite alerted the supply chain about its surplus food management capacities, examples of which were regularly released to the media:

> TASMANIA'S largest egg producer has added about 300 dozen eggs a week to a food-rescue service that supplies welfare agencies with fresh produce to distribute to the hungry. The eggs donated to SecondBite by Pure Foods would normally have been sent away to be pulped and pasteurised before being sold to biscuit and pasta manufacturers. (Kempton 2011b).

Furthermore, in 2014, a staff member of OzHarvest stated that they had made use of social media by releasing a photograph of a bin of carrots from a supermarket that was apparently destined for landfill. This food was '…rescued prompting a popular on-line response' (Respondent D 2015, pers. comm., 25 March).

5.2.3 Gaining Resources through Multiple-sector Support

5.2.3.1 Harnessing Volunteer Labour

SecondBite not only influenced the behaviours of supply chain members, it also harnessed volunteer labour, which in turn helped to lower operating costs to the supply chain and potentially provided training and development opportunities for individuals. Volunteering data revealed not only high levels of participation but also a rapid growth in numbers from 2008 to 2015. In 2012, 6,162 volunteering hours were expended increasing to 8,502 hours in 2013. Further analysis showed that three broad types of volunteers were recruited at SecondBite, with the vast majority coming from the two streams containing less advantaged individuals in local communities. These were unemployed persons (i.e. 'work for the dole' participants) and persons serving non-custodial sentences through the Department of Community Corrections relationship with SecondBite. The latter relationship was born from a SecondBite Manager's personal interest in addressing the social issue of the reintegration of offenders into the community:

> I've worked with the worst of prisoners…. there is a need for restorative justice… they fill the prison without any view to any of the issues about reintroducing offender; and accommodation upon release is also an issue and all of that needs to be addressed… (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October).

'Walk-up' volunteers were less numerous and had no obligation to volunteer; but some food banks (such as FareShare) had waiting lists for such volunteers. According to senior management (in an interview held in Melbourne on 20 October 2014):

> We literally have a thousand volunteers wanting to help out and we can't accommodate all of them all of the time (Respondent F 2014, pers. comm., 20 October).

> In recent years, staff volunteering has become a popular part of many corporate social responsibility (CSR) programs. FareShare has run corporate volunteering shifts for 10 years and our program includes the professional coordination of groups of volunteers – from scheduling, inducting and supervision. As well as giving businesses a fun team-building activity, we sensitively provide their employees with some insight into hunger in Melbourne, environmental issues around food and community service. (FareShare 2016, p1).

SecondBite had no formal corporate volunteer program, but had made attempts to accommodate 'corporate' volunteers on an informal basis (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October) and had a core of regular 'walk-up' volunteers that were committed to the aims of food banking such as Ivy Chung. The advantages of having three sources of volunteers not only related to the supply chain and labour costs but also to the use of some higher-profile volunteers for administrative and public relations purposes. Ivy Chung was a food industry stalwart associated publicly with SecondBite, along with food writer Elaine Reeves:

> For most of Ivy Chung's 60 years working life, she has sourced and distributed fresh produce for the family company Chung Sing…In a most successful bit of matchmaking, I put Ivy in touch with [SecondBite], the food-rescue service that collects fresh produce from big producers and retailers and distributes it to agencies that are providing meals to people that need them. (Reeves 2011a).

Food banks often acknowledged their volunteers publicly, and SecondBite also took measures to communicate the positive benefits that ensued from volunteering work:

> Our volunteers are vital to our operation. We couldn't do what we do without them. It's good to know that many get a lot out of assisting SecondBite as well. Some of our Tasmanian volunteers that tend garden beds in the Royal Botanical Gardens have told of the therapeutic benefits of working in the garden and how it has helped them deal with mental health issues. Others get so much out of feeling valued and being valuable, with increased confidence a catalyst for some to gain employment outside of SecondBite (SecondBite 2014, p. 10).

5.2.3.2 Gaining Ongoing Government Financial Support

SecondBite gained financial support from Australian Government sources, which along with volunteer labour, helped to lower operating costs in order to further support the value offering to the supply chain. In a letter from SecondBite to MP Andrew Wilkie dated 8 July 2014 it was stated that:

> During F/Y 2013-14 SecondBite Tasmania received Australian Government funding… Without this funding, SecondBite would have great difficulty accessing thousands of kg of food for redistribution. (SecondBite Tasmania 2014, pers. comm., p. 2).

SecondBite also had no hesitation in seeking and acknowledging Tasmanian Government support:

> SecondBite [Tasmania] has been recognised by the state government as being a major contributor to the emergency food relief effort and it has helped to support us financially (SecondBite 2016, p. 1).
>
> SecondBite also commenced the Healthy Hamper Project, an exciting collaboration with Foodbank Tasmania, funded by the Tasmanian Government, to deliver healthy food hampers to those in need across Tasmania (SecondBite 2014, p. 9).

In some cases, food banks preferred private sector support, because it was relatively easier to procure and to maintain. According to a FareShare manager interviewed (on 25 March 2015):

> There's a lot of paper work involved to get a small government grant…private funders know what we do and we can demonstrate more easily to them by the figures that we are doing well (Respondent D 2015, pers. comm., 25 March).

With less philanthropy on offer in Tasmania (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October), lobbying for public sources of funding culminated in recurrent funding being gained for three years. Foodbank Tasmania Incorporated had in 2014 received AUD$100,000, SecondBite AUD$75,000 and a smaller regional food bank ('Produce to the People') AUD$25,000, to be distributed over a three-year period. Total historical funding from major public sources within Tasmania is shown in Table 5.1 below. Foodbank received the majority of funding (63%) compared with SecondBite (29%) and Produce to the People (9%) over the period.

Table 5.1 Public funding (AUD$) of food banks in Tasmania from 2009-10 to 2013-14

Recipient	Tasmanian Government	Tasmanian Community Fund	Total	%
Foodbank Tas. Inc.	1,423,377	210,890	1,634,267	64.3
SecondBite Tas.	561,397	207,430	768,827	30.2
Produce to the People	105,665	34,100	139,765	5.5
Total	**2,090,440**	**452,420**	**2,542,860**	**100**

The data in Table 5.2 below indicated the average annual lifetime funding of SecondBite from public sources, from 2009 to 2014, was AUD$153,765.

Table 5.2 Public sources of funding (AUD$) of SecondBite from 2009-10 to 2013-14

Year in which funding occurred	Tasmanian Government	Tasmanian Community Fund	Totals (AUD)
2009-10	10,000	N/A	10,000
2011-12	180,000	70,080	250,080
2012-13	198,000	45,000	243,000
2013-14	115,000	N/A	115,000
2013-14	38,377	92,350	130,727
2013-14	20,020	N/A	20,020
Totals	561,397	207,430	768,827
Average annual funding (2009 to 2014)	**112,279**	**41,486**	**153,765**

One reason for Foodbank Tasmania receiving more funding was simply that food banks in Australia had adopted an 'activity-based' and 'Social Return on Investment' (SROI) approach to seeking funding. according to a senior FareShare manager interviewed on 25 March 2015, activity-based (i.e. volumes of food collected) and SROI figures are those referred to above, which funders such as private philanthropists 'like to see' (Respondent D 2015, pers. comm., 25 March). SecondBite claimed an SROI ratio of 2.75:1, meaning that it created $2.75 of economic, environmental and social value for every $1 which was invested by donors (SecondBite 2013, p. 15):

> The SROI ratio increased from 1.65:1 in 2010 to 2.75:1.1 in 2012, more than a 65% increase in the value created through the organisation for every dollar invested. (SecondBite 2013, p. 15).

The Australian Food and Grocery Council (AFGC) and Foodbank Australia arrived at a figure of $7 for every $1 invested by donors (Foodbank Hunger Report 2014). OzHarvest and Bain Consulting arrived at a figure of $5.68 (Respondent D 2015, pers. comm., 25 March). This emphasis on activity in the management effort was ongoing as reported in a SecondBite email dated 12 March 2015:

> …SecondBite has cracked the 100 tonne mark for February!!! Our previous best was 80 tonne in December and we have more than doubled our average monthly collections this month… (SecondBite 2015, pers. comm., 12 March).

Another reason for higher levels of funding to Foodbank Tasmania was that Foodbank Australia's longer standing national status afforded it funding advantages, which SecondBite had raised in a letter to Andrew Wilkie MP dated 23 July 2014:

> Our message to the Australian Government is to ask them to reconsider their funding guidelines through the Department of Social Services Food Relief grants. …Under the current selection criteria; SecondBite and all other agencies which do not have national coverage, are effectively locked out! Also the time available to provide a detailed submission –a mere four weeks –is unacceptable. Our argument (and this is well supported by the research), is that successful outcomes to food insecurity rely on place based solutions driven by local initiatives. In other words, a one size fits all approach; delivered through a national program will not work.

In sum, food banks were not - without constant effort (e.g. lobbying politicians) - guaranteed either ongoing donations of food (from particular supermarket chains), or regular funding (from particular public sources). In an interview SBQ management held in Brisbane on 29 October 2014, it was found that the situation of being accepted in the Tasmanian community can be compared with the more tenuous situation of SBQ in 2012 to 2014, where Foodbank Queensland Incorporated had been established since the late 1990s, and was supported by local government and wealthy philanthropists (Respondent H 2015, pers. comm., 29 October). Whilst the Foodbank premises in Brisbane was provided and maintained by the local government authority virtually free of charge, SBQ had difficulties gaining an equal level of support. According to the SBQ manager:

> When I was working from home and using my own car, Foodbank was running around with a fleet of trucks and a warehouse paid for, with huge volumes of food and financial support, including a lot of fresh food we were targeting. There was a feasibility study to start off with but that really didn't help compete with the resources they had (Respondent H 2014, pers. comm., 29 October).

SecondBite Tasmania had succeeded, by appealing both directly to stakeholders and to the public for funding, through the use of local media outlets:

> SecondBite undertook research, questioning nine recipient agencies in Victoria and 30 of their clients between August and September last year. It found that 63 per cent of the clients sourced at least half their total food intake from community food programs. And it found that 71 per cent of the fresh food provided by community food programs came from food-rescue services -- $193,000 worth of food for the nine agencies that otherwise would have gone to landfill. Donate to SecondBite…Donations from Tasmania will be spent in Tasmania (Reeves 2011b, p. 1).

5.3 Creating Value-based Aligned Activities and Collaborations

5.3.1 Surplus Food Supply Chain

A 'surplus food supply chain' (as shown in Figure 5.1 in Appendix D) depicts the results of the first-hand observations and the documentation of the flow of food surpluses and implied the different types of shared value created by SecondBite. Value creation occurred beginning from the donating food organisations through: (1) providers of in-kind logistical support (e.g. SRT), (2) SecondBite's own logistical and state-wide distribution system, (3) 'Coles Community Connect', (4) SecondBite's food hubs, (5) other food banks (i.e. SecondBite in Victoria, and competitors Foodbank Tasmania and Produce to the People), (6) end-users, and (7) residual waste (e.g. landfill in dotted lines). The relatively complex nature of redistribution was both a function of the nature of food banking and a legacy of its particular 'ad-hoc' development with limited resources in Tasmania (in Chapter Four). Figure 5.1 represents the sum total of SecondBite's tangible food industry aligned value-adding food redistribution activities that centred upon successfully servicing the upstream donors for the mutual benefit of the downstream recipients but not without issues arising. Figure 5.1 demonstrates that, despite the chain of value-adding activities, there were supply chain issues relating to both underutilised food and totally wasted food and therefore also lost value-adding opportunities.

5.3.2 Food Industry Alignment of the SecondBite Logistical Model

Two main inbound and outbound logistical activities were evident in the logistical model employed by SecondBite. These were: (1) the daily 'runs' for the collection of food and its

packaging, and (2) the larger scale collection and redistribution of fresh fruit and vegetables. The first set of activities occurred in both of SecondBite's warehouses, but in the case of the Hobart warehouse, more food donations were received from food retailers and wholesalers compared with the Launceston warehouse. Launceston also had a run schedule (e.g. to food hubs) but unlike Hobart, it had been developed over time and geographically located to collect larger volumes of food from farm gate donors than from food retailers. During conversations with a SecondBite Operations Manager it was stated that:

> Coles Supermarkets and Coles DC makes up about 25 or 30% of what we collect – its important because of the relationship and because it is more diverse in its range, but really about 70% of all donations come from the growers (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

Whilst Hobart redistributed food to Launceston, the flow of donated food mainly ran from the larger farm-gate donors in the north-west and north, to the south. In both centres, the collection of food from donors occurred either directly from the donor (i.e. supermarket store, farm, market, etc.) or its distribution centre, or from the depot of a third-party logistics provider. The development of these third-party arrangements (including with in-kind supporters) and SecondBite's food collection activities had been shaped over time to suit the needs of the food donors and to service the food recipients.

5.3.3 Daily warehouse runs – Hobart warehouse

The warehouse 'run' process involved the raising of orders in the SecondBite Hobart warehouse through an IT application (also accessible from a remote device in the field). A volunteer warehouse assistant then compiled the orders from a list prepared by office staff (including paid staff and volunteer administrative assistants). The orders were packed into a refrigerated van by the driver and the volunteers. In the past, the run process was more ad-hoc with recipients picking and choosing from bulk food packed (ad-hoc) into the delivery van. Senior SecondBite Management stated that:

> …these runs are now carried out in a more logical sequence and are more efficient with five days of deliveries now done over four days (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

According to a SecondBite staff member:

> They used to come out and have a good pick around but it is all pretty much packed into the orders now. Sometimes they just don't want what we've got… (Respondent G 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

There was still, however, some negotiation between the driver and the recipients about what portion of their food order the recipient actually wanted. For example, at the time many brown onions were available (i.e. in season in Tasmania, a large onion producing region of Australia) and most of the recipients did not need them. They would ask 'have you got this or that' [alternative product]? These recipients varied in type from various Salvation Army programs to women's refuges and youth centres where it the abovementioned staff member asked:

> I don't know why we are about to take onions in here…we took onions last week...I'm not sure how many onions they can really use, but we'll see (Respondent G 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

The food donors on one run out of the Hobart warehouse included a supermarket store, two bakeries, a fruit grower and a dairy factory which on this occasion was donating food packaging (i.e. used cardboard boxes in very good condition). The donation of food packaging was interesting because according to accepted definitions of food waste, food packaging is included (e.g. see Parfitt et al. 2010). Notwithstanding any value accruing to the donor (e.g. achieving waste management cost reductions, recycling targets and so on), it was noteworthy that the donor in question had stored the boxes (unfolded flat) for collection by SecondBite. A Secondbite staff member stated that:

> all we're doing here today is getting boxes...they get their container tops sent down in these…they're pretty new…they'll get used to pack the food hampers (Respondent G 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

It was also noted that many of the donors had not used all of food that was delivered on the previous run (one donor had placed all three large plastic bags of donated fresh food it had

received, unopened, into a skip bin). In response to noting this wastage, comments were made by SecondBite staff that sometimes the quality of the food they delivered was 'poor', but opinion varied as to how much of a problem this really was considering that the food had been provided free of charge. A SecondBite volunteer stated that:

> They get what they get… it is free you know… if I was really hungry I would eat it (Respondent W 2015, pers. comm., 2 March).

On the field trip mentioned above the staff member had commented that:

> It's sometimes embarrassing…some of this stuff …just look at it…you get the feeling they don't even want us here sometimes (Respondent G 2014 pers. comm., 2 December).

Secondbite managers tended to be more practical about the 'system', one stating that:

> It's a good service but some still pick and choose …others phone in first and ask what we've got and work around it. They understand how it works and know how to work with what they can find. [One place in particular] wants only the best and wants it on demand without following the [hamper ordering] system … remember, it's free of charge …what we get is what they can get (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

During the same conversation (2 December 2014) another manager stated that:

> It's just commonsense really – if the food is no good why would you pick it up in the first place let alone deliver it? It's up to the drivers to use a bit of common sense... (Respondent A, 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

Food (such as frozen bread) was picked up at a food donor premises and was then soon after taken on the same run to a food recipient, the Hobart Benevolent Society. The Hobart Benevolent Society food delivery was noteworthy because on arrival there was a line of individual recipients waiting for the SecondBite food van to arrive. Food bank staff usually did not have such direct contact with end-consumers of surplus food (i.e. some of whom helped to place the empty bread trays back into the food van) and the nature of the food 'hand-out' (especially with food simply being placed on the ground), was a reminder of the most basic social purpose of food banking. The situation in Launceston was somewhat different as food hubs were used more extensively to redistribute food. A SecondBite operations manager stated that:

> we've got eight food hubs…more than in the South…they are used more like bulk food delivery centres not like the way the operation works in the south …those food hampers [over there] they come from Hobart but most food comes in through this operation and then to Hobart (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

5.3.4 Food Distribution Centre (DC) – Regional Warehouses

The SecondBite Launceston operation was different not least due to the fact that it collected much larger volumes of surpluses from farm gate donors than was the case in Hobart. The nature of the relationships with these larger donors and the volumes of food collected had seen the Launceston operation become, in the language of the food industries (e.g. Coles DC), more of a distribution centre (DC) than Hobart. A SecondBite operations manager reported that:

> it's not like Hobart…we collect about 70% of all the donations from up here …We are the 'providers' to Hobart…most of the food comes through here in the way of fresh fruit and vegetables from the north west coast…this is the DC [Launceston warehouse] (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

An example of a twice weekly farm-gate collection 'run' (again, experienced first-hand) involved mainly large donors and the collection of fruit and vegetables. The donor (and donations) included Charlton Farms, Harvest Moon, Premium Fresh, Coles Distribution Centre (DC) and others. The first stop on this run was to collect pallets from CHEP; one reason for the high level of donor support on the northwest coast was that SecondBite leave pallets and bins in place for farm gate donors to use (again, from an Operations Manager):

> The hire of CHEP pallets and bins went from an ad-hoc casual arrangement to a more formal hiring arrangement through the CHEP systems, except that the fees are waived for us. CHEP was already a supporter but we used to lose pallets or not have enough…now they are tracked like for any other customer except we don't pay. (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

This was confirmed by a SecondBite Hobart manager:

> CHEP was the catalyst for very significantly increased donations from the bigger growers (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

At the same time, with regard to many other potential growers and farmers

> we are not even on their radar (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

Nonetheless, the ‘runs’ described were highly organised and scheduled to fit in with the food donor organisation environments, including navigating some very crowded loading bays, which were a ‘hive’ of forklift truck activity. Relationship management was an important issue. Whereas other trucks were queued for their pick-up, SecondBite was given priority; this was done either by ‘jumping the queue’ or using the other delivery side of the donor’s warehouse operations to make pick-ups. According to the operations manager, the reason for this was due not only to the support of the owners of the donor organisations concerned, but the relationship building efforts of SecondBite:

> When I started it was a bit all over the place and now we’ve put in place systems…it’s more like key account management…my role is more like looking after relationships with the big donors...I’m from up this way…that lady in the office, I went to school with her…we make sure we look after the right people [that do the loading, etc.] …and give them a present each year… (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

Larger donors included Charlton Farms who exports onions to Europe and on one occasion donated a field bin of onions that were of good quality but apparently not export quality. Another donor with which SecondBite had a close working relationship was Harvest Moon, who donated three bins of cauliflowers. The donation came about due to the cauliflowers being rejected on quality grounds - as a result of a supermarket quality assurance process. The grower was notified that the flower was not properly formed and was given the options of collecting them, paying the cost of freight for their return, or donating them to a food bank; the grower was eligible for tax deduction for ultimately donating the cauliflowers. Alternatively, any second or third grade (‘ugly’) vegetables may have been processed by the wholesaler to produce new products (pre-prepared vegetables such as coleslaw mix, as evidenced on-site at Harvest Moon on 15 January 2015). The Field Fresh donation of two bins of carrots was of edible quality but, in aesthetic terms was second grade, being bent and split. All donations were kept refrigerated (cold-chain complaint) and this incurred a major cost which was another ongoing challenge for SecondBite.

The refrigerated truck used on the run was new and was funded by way of a Tasmanian Community Fund and Newman's Own Foundation grant which allowed for the replacement of a smaller refrigerated van (later used in Hobart). New efficiencies and features were evident that took some pressure of the SRT in-kind arrangement. According to the conversations with the Operations Manager (mentioned already):

> Whereas previously, using the van, it took multiple trips over two and half days to do this run, the same volume of food is now collected in about three and a half hours. (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

> At the completion of the run on the Thursday, I can pack the truck ready to drive to Hobart the next morning with a delivery of food…that's better for us than relaying too much on SRT (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

Whilst SecondBite undertook an array of activities it was largely collecting, storing and redistributing donations of fresh food from the food industries. In summary, SecondBite facilitated more donations than previously by providing infrastructure to donors (e.g. by partnering with CHEP). Around 70% of all food donations by volume were in 2014 sourced from the farm gate donors and the largest of these were located in the northwest regions of Tasmania and, as mentioned, in the language of the food industries, this meant that the Launceston warehouse was no longer suitable as a state-wide distribution centre (DC). As a result, SecondBite relocated the DC in the northwest region nearer Coles DC and the farm gates. This expansion and growth strategy in the food redistribution activities of SecondBite appeared to be shaped primarily to service the food supply chain's needs in order to secure more supplies of food surpluses needed for redistribution to charities.

5.3.5 Balancing Multiple Stakeholder Needs

However, the food bank did not simply obtain unlimited and steady supplies of free food without developing strategies to deal with multiple, potentially conflicting, stakeholder needs around for example, surplus food supply and demand and food quality, described as follows.

The main issue for all food banks (Foodbank, SecondBite, FareShare and OzHarvest) now was 'getting more food' or 'getting enough food'; a constant theme in food banking communications was that more food was needed because more hunger was evident in local communities. Despite the need for but lack of specific research evident about current and likely future demand specifically for food banking products and services, food bank reports reveal that the general message about increased demand persisted:

> Almost 90% of food relief agencies have experienced an increase in the need for food related services in the last twelve months (SecondBite 2009, p. 2).
>
> Throughout Australia demand for food relief is rising (Foodbank Hunger Report 2014, p. 11).
>
> THE PROBLEM appears to be GROWING: of SecondBite's community food program partners 80% experienced an increase in demand in the previous 12 months (SecondBite 2014, p. 4).

Meanwhile, SecondBite data indicated a shortfall between what should in theory be available for donation and what was actually donated (both within the same Coles Supermarket store over time, and large variations between different stores). In November 2013, internal memos show that a meeting was called by senior SecondBite management to discuss the 'dwindling volume of food donations from Coles' (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 9 August). SecondBite staff had visited individual Coles Supermarkets stores to remedy the situation. However, it was found that not all store level managers were enthusiastically compliant with national policy. A SecondBite manager commented that:

> you got the impression that they were not quite as enthusiastic at the local store level as the senior people were nationally (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 13 August).

Additionally, it was found that an 'old habit' of supporting farmers by donating edible food (for example, as pig food), had persisted. A larger problem, however, was losing a supply of food altogether. Early on there was no guarantee of loyalty on either side of a food bank/food business relationship. A letter from Woolworths to SecondBite (undated, circa 2011) included the following extract:

> The whole company is extremely proud of the recognition that Foodbank has given us of being Australia's largest donator of food to charitable organisations…If you haven't already we would encourage you to look at increasing the number and diversity of outlets you receive food from, thereby insulating the people you serve from the inevitable rise and fall in donations which might come from any one donor.

A subsequent reluctance by SecondBite to 'upset' major donors such as Coles Supermarkets and Woolworths could have resulted from this experience, and perhaps underpinned why SecondBite 'asked no questions'; a senior SecondBite manager commented that:

> if a donor calls, say "yes" and sort it out later on (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 2 December).

Unfortunately, however, this acceptance sometimes caused issues of food quality to flow downstream or to result in wastage at the food bank rather than at the food business. The quality of food bank products was almost totally dependent upon the quality of the inputs it received free of charge from the donor food organisations. In a DPAC (2014) report it was noted that:

> Generally recipient organisations are very happy with the service that SecondBite provides, however, as SecondBite relies upon donated food, it is sometimes unable to provide the level of quality or variety of food that [downstream welfare] organisations would like… (DPAC 2014, p. 23).

The data revealed that the manner in which SecondBite serviced the for-profit food and grocery supply chains while attending to the issues that arose (such as food shortages, food quality and wastage) was at one level simply public relations management (i.e. keeping donors 'on-side' come what may) and, at another level, was a more complex form of multiple stakeholder management. In the SecondBite 2014 Annual Report it was stated that:

> we need to innovate and collaborate; we need to leverage the skills and resources of business, government and community sectors. At SecondBite, we are excited by the many opportunities that exist for working together to create value... (SecondBite 2014, p. 20).

By 2014, food donors rarely attempted to deliberately use food banks as a waste disposal option but on occasions would attempt to donate food of lesser quality, a problem dealt with

differently by other food banks. An OzHarvest manager reported (during an interview in Sydney on 25 March 2015) that:

> Yes, but all of our drivers are paid and they know what to do…. We think this is very important. …they know the food donors and they know the recipient's needs…they can match them. The bigger problem for us is more that we send a driver based on estimates given over the phone…there are times when there's not enough room in the van (Respondent D 2015, pers. comm.).

Similarly, a FareShare operations manager stated that they had learned to put in place measures to protect themselves from inappropriate donations:

> we became better at asking more about the donation before actually accepting it... It's more a case of having the capacity to deal with what we are offered. There was [recently] an offer of meat carcasses rejected - we simply don't have the butchery skills for… (Respondent Q 2014, pers. comm., 28 January).

However, despite the best efforts of food bank managers, and in contrast to the more superficial accounts of food banking in annual reports and in the media: (1) some social welfare charities 'resisted' or complained about food banking products and services, and (as mentioned earlier) (2) some redistributed foodstuffs remained underutilised or were all together wasted.

The 'Healthy Hampers' project was an example of a response to the concerns of stakeholders. SecondBite balanced its commitment to the for-profit food and grocery chain's major donors with its 'food system agenda'. Inspiration had been drawn from overseas experience where the Ontario Government had decided to 'provide a tax credit for farmers who donate agricultural product to local food banks' (Ontario Association of Food Banks, 2016, p. 1):

> As an amendment to Bill 36, The Local Food Act, in 2014, farmers in Ontario will receive a non-refundable 25 per cent tax credit based on the fair market value of product that they donate to local food banks and community meal programs (Ontario Association of Food Banks 2016, p. 1).

Such strategic priorities not only supported existing donors but were aimed at recruiting potential new upstream donors and underpinned the integration of the food bank into local food and grocery supply chains. As a part of these local food supply chains the food bank was able

to increase its collaborative efforts in order to deliver different types of downstream shared value.

5.3.6 Collaborations with Non-Supply Chain Members

One way in which food banks provide value to the supply chain as a part of the integration process was to collaborate (e.g. share food) with other competing food banks which sometimes cut across conventionally competing supply chain lines. This was done in order to manage peaks and troughs in surplus food supply and demand.

The issue of food bank competition versus more collaboration had been an ongoing strategic priority for SecondBite Tasmania management and they had implemented a policy recommendation from the Food Security Council of Tasmania (and later from DPAC as per below) to seek efficiencies in surplus food redistribution in Tasmania. A senior SecondBite manager stated that:

> One of biggest issues in Tasmania is the lack of collaboration and the competition that exists among charities performing the same services. Tasmania doesn't need another food bank… (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 13 August).

New branch openings, however, appeared to more of a concern in the smaller Tasmanian market than elsewhere. A senior FareShare manager acknowledged that duplication could be an issue but seemed more 'resigned', stating the reasons as follows:

> it's about egos sometimes…the growth plans and the national sponsorship arrangements means that food banks will open up in new places for the benefit of national sponsors even where they will be duplicating services (Respondent F 2014, pers. comm., 20 October).

While the practice of the food banks sharing food on an irregular or opportunistic basis was commonplace, four examples were noted of more (or less) formalised than opportunistic arrangements among food banks. These were: (1) an informal and fairly new SecondBite and FareShare arrangement in Victoria, (2) a relatively more formal arrangement between SecondBite and Produce to the People, (3) a formal (but not legally binding) FareShare

distribution partnership with Foodbank Victoria, and (4) the already mentioned formalised and financially binding arrangement between SecondBite and Foodbank Tasmania through the Healthy Hamper project. Of most relevance and interest to this case are (2) and (4) above, which are now discussed in more detail.

While Produce to the People (PTTP) was a food bank in its own right, it was limited geographically to the northwest region of Tasmania and operationally by its very small size. In the past if PTTP was offered a large donation it may have been forced to decline, but after becoming a type of food hub for SecondBite, PTTP subsequently approached SecondBite to undertake food collections on its behalf. This service led to the two-way sharing of food between PTTP and SecondBite, despite the fact that each was in collaboration with supply chain competitors (i.e. arch rivals Woolworths and Coles Supermarkets).

With regard to Foodbank, a SecondBite operations manager had commented that:

> in the past they were the competition but now we can work with them… (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

The 'Healthy Hampers' project with Foodbank emerged as a condition of funding by the Tasmanian Government. In the DPAC (2014) Emergency Food Relief Report it was recommended that:

> Prior to receiving further funding, it is recommended that Foodbank, SecondBite and Produce to the People outline ways in which they can minimise duplication and work towards a more collaborative and coordinated distribution model (DPAC 2014, p. 35).

However, prior to 2013, PTTP and Foodbank Tasmania were regarded as fierce competitors of SecondBite whereas under new management in 2013, higher levels of cooperation were evidenced as follows:

> under the old State Manager Foodbank and Produce to the People were like competitors. We can now help out a bit …taking food to Hobart for Foodbank…helping Produce to the People collect food…it was ridiculous driving an empty truck to Hobart and Foodbank food was sitting up north (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

By then SecondBite was, for example, returning food or empty pallets from the north of Tasmania to Foodbank in the south and was working closely with PTTP. In the case of Foodbank Tasmania, it still had no physical presence outside of Hobart by late 2015. According to SecondBite, there were some competitive advantages resulting from these arrangements. Foodbank's lack of a presence and its more *ad hoc* than regular collection activities in the north, meant that farm gate donors often preferred to deal with SecondBite because of the aforementioned tight scheduling and reliable collection service (features of the 'one-stop-shop'). For example, opportunities arose when:

> sometimes food is not collected by Foodbank, and we [SecondBite] have on occasions been asked to take a Foodbank donation away (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

There were problems for the social welfare agency clients; having already paid Foodbank both an initial membership fee and for food (either per kg or per pallet), some clients then had to organise and pay for the actual pallets to transport their own food. Therefore, SecondBite had a distinct competitive advantage in sourcing large donations close to the source of growth and production (for freshness etc.), and providing value to downstream clients, due in part to its fairly comprehensive state-wide service, new refrigerated truck and donor relationship building. In 2015, SecondBite Tasmania reported to DPAC (2015, p. 2), its Tasmanian Government funders that:

> SecondBite's food procurement efforts have developed strong relationships with the farming sector, especially in the north west of the state. This combined with our Coles Community Food with SecondBite program, which includes sixteen stores and two distribution centres ensures a consistent supply of surplus fresh food. This has resulted in collections during the reporting period of 511,668kg from 137 food donors.
>
> SecondBite has been able to redistribute donated fresh food using an integrated system, which is extremely cost effective. While there is a requirement to operate refrigerated vehicles, cool rooms and freezers, there is a strong emphasis on small staff numbers, a large volunteer pool and in kind support especially in the area of logistics.
>
> The use of food hubs in outer metropolitan and regional areas has enabled us to extend our reach as has the use of our Community Connect model which links recipient agencies directly with Coles stores.

However as collaboration was a strategic priority for SecondBite (and the Tasmanian Government) it considered partnering with Foodbank in a joint venture in the northwest of the state. While Foodbank were located only in Hobart, by 2015 SecondBite redistributed surplus food through a network of two warehouses and twelve food hubs (and interstate). SecondBite then offered to open a new DC (in the northwest) in conjunction with Foodbank whom had declined the offer. One possible reason, aside from Foodbank's size and its lack of a need to cooperate with the smaller SecondBite, was that SecondBite was on this occasion too openly attempting to access resources across conventional supply chain competitor lines (e.g. Woolworths and Coles Supermarkets). Unlike the more formalised collaborations involving conditional funding this time there was no institutional imprimatur. In response, an undated letter circa 30 September 2015 was written from SecondBite to a federal member of parliament Brett Whitely whom had expressed support for Foodbank Tasmania opening their own north western Tasmanian warehouse. :

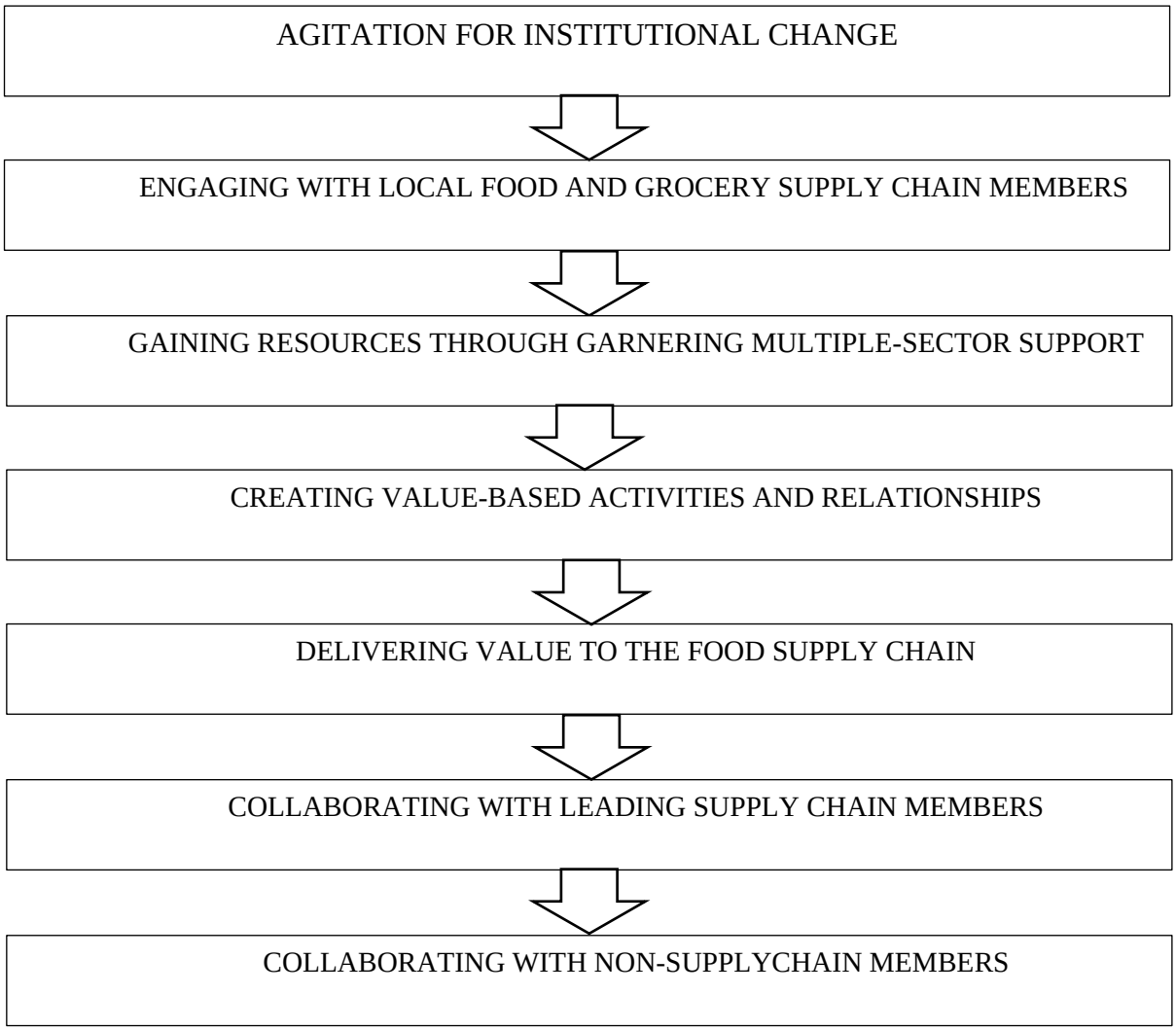
> We at SecondBite note with interest that the Liberal Party are supporting the establishment of Foodbank Tasmania's expansion in the North West of Tasmania. While this is a most laudable gesture by yourself and your party, perhaps it would be beneficial for all concerned to examine the development of fresh food rescue and redistribution in Tasmania from a historical context and the implications of competing interests in the North West (SecondBite Tasmania 2015, pers. comm., circa 30 September).

SecondBite management had commenced lobbying based on appealing to government funders about the issues of efficiency, namely the duplication of services in Tasmania versus more collaboration between food banks.

5.4 A Model of SecondBite's Integration into a For-Profit Supply Chain

The case data analysed so far in this chapter, about the strategic priorities of the management of a not-for-profit food bank involved in the integration into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain, is now presented as a Process Model in the following Figure 5.2.

Figure 5.2 Key Strategic priorities in SecondBite's integration into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain



5.5 Upstream Shared Value Creation in the For-profit Food Supply Chain

In terms of the second research question; what types of shared value is perceived as strategically important by the managers of a not-for-profit food bank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain? The following sections are organised around the aforementioned Figure 5.1 and first emphasise the strategic importance of the value created with regard to the operation of food supply chain collaborators (upstream); and then describe those around the social and environmental agenda collaborators (downstream).

5.5.1 A One-stop-shop Surplus Food Service

The food bank operated in a manner that had resulted in building its good will, and in maintaining high levels of trust between the food bank and the local food and grocery supply chain members. Some relationships were long-standing including. Relationships with SRT and CHEP originated in 2009-10 and were strong in 2015; the nature of, and the manner in which, service was delivered to these food donors could be described as a 'no questions asked' 'one-stop-shop' surplus food management service. The data showed the features of the one-stop shop by 2015 included those listed in Table 5.3 below.

Table 5.3 Features of SecondBite's 'one-stop-shop' surplus food management service to the for-profit food and grocery supply chain members

Value offered and delivered	Evidence/example
Rapid response and efficient removal of large volumes of food surpluses from all stores, farm gates and distribution centres	State-wide food collection system (as observed) CHEP alliance and on-farm pallets and bins service *If a donor calls say "yes" and we'll sort it all out later* (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm.)
Improved management of the previously ad-hoc and more cumbersome direct collection of surpluses by multiple entities including multiple smaller charities	'Coles Community Connect' model Relocation of DC closer to donors
Data sharing and active reporting on waste levels	Coles waste reports (data spreadsheets accessed but not published)
Product chain risk and responsibility management	The buck stopped with SecondBite Complaints handling policy and practice, (for example, as evidenced in the Healthy Hampers Project policy documentation)
Provision of CSR opportunities and reputational advantages/cross promotional marketing opportunities	Coles Community Food Program benefits listed in SecondBite 2014 'Donate to SecondBite (nationally) through Coles Supermarket checkouts' Promotions at Local store level (e.g. Coles Supermarket Glenorchy promotion

	of ‘SecondBite In Schools’ in November 2014)
Taxation advantages	Tax deductibility status ‘Green Eggs’ test case (2010) Tax receipts issues (as observed from 2014 to 2015) Taxation advantages advertised through media outlets
Free volunteer labour and a potential supply of trained, paid labour	Volunteer labour hours (spread sheets accessed) MAX Employment contract (see below)

In Tasmania, the data showed that the aforementioned long-standing loyal food donors comprised the majority (around 70%) of all fresh fruit and vegetable donations. While these relationships were fairly low in profile and not branded, Coles Supermarkets afforded SecondBite with higher-profile raising growth opportunities:

> Today, as SecondBite’s national partner, Coles is critical to SecondBite expanding our reach and increasing our profile nationally, providing even more nutritious food to more people in need through more community food programs. (SecondBite Annual Report 2014, p. 14).

The data showed that the higher-profile branded partnerships between the food and grocery supply chain leaders and the food banks (e.g. SecondBite and Coles Supermarkets) led to ‘quasi-privatised’ forms of emergency food relief emerge.

5.5.2 Closer, Branded Collaboration with the Major Food Donor

‘Coles Community Food with SecondBite’ was piloted in Tasmania in 2011, and was fully operational by 2012 in the form a national partnership between Coles and SecondBite:

> SecondBite Community Connect™, an innovative model that empowers and enables local communities to do it for themselves. All this has led us here – SecondBite Community Connect; operations in Victoria, Tasmania and Queensland; an imminent launch in Brisbane; and a national partnership with Coles Supermarkets (SecondBite 2011, p. 15).

In return for SecondBite's systematic approach and 'food welfare' imprimatur, Coles Supermarkets provided increasing levels of surplus food and physical and financial support to SecondBite thus further increasing SecondBite's financial and physical capabilities:

> The growing amount of food donated is just one measure of the strength of the partnership. Used equipment has been donated and put to good use by SecondBite. Coles has also shared their expertise in areas like HR and Property to help us solve our business challenges. (SecondBite 2014, p. 14).

The apparent reason for Coles working with SecondBite was cited in a Coles Supermarket's press release:

> Coles selected SecondBite to help manage its national program due to its expertise in fresh food rescue, focus on food safety procedures and quality control, and its unique Community Connect™ model (Coles Supermarkets 2012).

The need for such programs was stated as the need to service regional and rural areas of Australia. Yet, prior to 2009, welfare agencies such as the Salvation Army operated from a warehouse in Glenorchy, Southern Tasmania in order to redistribute any food it collected from supermarkets. According to a senior SecondBite manager:

> The Salvos warehouse in Glenorchy was used to store some food collected from supermarkets…a lot of bread…We had supplied that warehouse early on…it was more ad-hoc whereas ours was more systematic and collected food surpluses from supermarkets in a coordinated way (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 26 August).

The advent of SecondBite and food banking in Tasmania (see Chapter Four) saw collections from supermarkets gradually consolidated through food banks (as the 'easier', value adding option). Community Connect saw the re-emergence of direct collections by charities, except now through the auspices of SecondBite. In addition to any practical logistical reasons, there were now social responsibility and reputational reasons for Coles Supermarkets systematically supporting SecondBite and food banking nationally and in Tasmania. Coles themselves and not SecondBite were now in a position to claim that 'The program will have significant and positive health impacts…' (Coles 2012, p. 1) and by 2016, listed SecondBite Tasmania's food recipients (clients) on their social responsibility website (Coles 2016).

The value-adding arrangements were neither promised nor delivered by SecondBite to the supply chain members in isolation of some broader considerations. The new, food and grocery supply chain arrangements (that now included food banks and surplus food redistribution), included the already mentioned social and government and not just business collaborators. Such arrangements had implications for the nature and profile of food banking in a region where both major food banks were now fully immersed in formalised partnerships with both large competing supermarket chains (i.e. Foodbank Tasmania with Woolworths and SecondBite with Coles Supermarkets).

5.6 Shared Value Creation Downstream of Food Supply Chain Donors

5.6.1 Social Agenda

An eclectic array of SecondBite social program activities were identified and categorised as: (1) general food security advocacy and networking, (2) nutrition education, and (3) food production related activities. The first two of these categories are less tangible services, while the third category was aligned more closely with the core operating model of redistributing food. While servicing the food industry's needs, SecondBite simultaneously maintained a social welfare agenda which enhanced its social reputation. Unlike food banks operating more closely to a clearing-house food bank model, SecondBite aimed to be viewed as innovatively addressing not just hunger but the more expansive, vexing and intractable issue of food insecurity. An early goal was:

> Promoting sustainable alternatives to food insecurity through self-reliance, improved nutrition and partnerships with significant stakeholders including; all levels of government, schools, neighbourhood houses, the community sector, government agencies and community gardeners. (SecondBite Tasmania 2009, p. 2).

Table 5.4 which follows includes: (1) community food program networking and advocacy activities - undertaken through the SecondBite's memberships of 'Feeding the Future' (not related to UN Program of the same name) and 'Healthy Food Access Tasmania' which had

very limited funding, (2) the nutrition education function was delivered through the FreshNED and FoodMate training courses which, according to a senior SecondBite manager were only run from time to time due to funding issues (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October) (Four was the number that could be verified) (SecondBite 2013, p. 2), and (3) food production and/or redistribution activities of some type or another, included the Emergency Food Relief Outreach Service (EFROS).

5.6.1.1 EFROS

EFROS emerged from a single event that occurred in October 2010. According to the source just mentioned, this involved:

> …a response to a request from an agency supporting a family in the community. The issue at hand was the need to house a large family…in a local caravan park…there was no time to arrange food for the weekend. SecondBite was able to provide two large hampers as emergency relief (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm. 16 October).

While EFROS is an ongoing and tangible food redistribution activity, other smaller or less established activities included SecondBite in Schools (SIS), 'Volunteering Pathways', 'Food on the Table', Tasmanian Community Food Garden (formerly 'Pete's Patch' at the RTBG), Food Connections Clarence (FCC) (including 'Chat and Chew' – i.e. meals prepared by students with SecondBite food for consumption by elderly people in the community), and the Waterbridge Project.

Table 5.4 Broad types of food bank social agenda activities

Program stream	Project/activity	Role	Organisational partners	Funding bodies
Advocacy and networking	Feeding the Future Local Produce Guild (FTF)	Founding member, Steering Committee Chair	Tasmanian Government Grosvenor Consultants	Food for all Tasmanians (Tas. Govt.)
	Healthy Food Access Tasmania	Reference group member	Medicare Local	Medicare Local
Food and nutrition training	FoodMate	Owner	Contingent	Contingent upon the courses actual implementation
	FreshNED	Owner	Contingent	

Food redistribution and production	Food relief (EFROS)	Owner	Registered social welfare agencies	Coles Supermarkets food donations Allport Trust
	SecondBite in Schools	Owner/partner	Participating schools	MyState Foundation Grant
	Prison Gardens	Partner	Tasmanian Prison Service Family Life Centre Church (FLC)	FLC (in-kind)
	Volunteering Pathways (to employment program)	Owner	Max Employment Department of Community Corrections	Max Employment
	Food on the Table	Partner	Feeding the Future Tasmanian Prison Service Christian Family Centre	Feeding the Future Foundation 49
	Waterbridge	Founding member, Steering Committee Chair	Colony 47 Workskills Centacare Evolve	Medicare Local's Social Determinants of Health Project
	Food Connections Clarence	Steering Committee member	Clarence City Council	DPAC Food Security CCC
	Tasmanian Community Food Garden	Founding/ Respondent F	RTBG FTF Tas. Govt.	Tasmanian Community Fund RTBG Tasmanian Government

The following sections represent the effort to address SecondBite's food security agenda and represented in practice a relatively small portion of the total food bank person hours, with one staff member out of nine working in this field. Whilst SecondBite worked closely with the government's Populations Health Unit, and there was mention of the nutritional education function (particularly with regard to the parent food bank's implementation), there was by 2015 little in the way of the local delivery of these courses. Three more tangibly significant social agenda activities that resulted in downstream shared value creation were the 'Volunteering Pathways', the 'Waterbridge Project' and the 'Tasmanian Prison Service gardening initiatives'.

5.6.1.2 Volunteering Pathways to Employment

As mentioned, SecondBite volunteers were drawn from several sources, including those compelled to be volunteering as a result of either the 'work-for-the dole' arrangements or Community Corrections orders. The resulting Department of Community Corrections and MAX Employment relationships are designed to source volunteer labour free of charge while providing volunteers with potential employment opportunities.

5.6.1.3 Community Corrections

The Department of Community Corrections relationship with SecondBite was already mentioned and the individuals involved not only apparently fulfilled their community service obligation and provided labour to SecondBite but also apparently increased their life skills and the likelihood of gaining future employment opportunities in the food industries. This was also proposed as being the case for the special category of (often long-term) unemployed volunteers sourced by SecondBite from MAX Employment.

5.6.1.4 MAX Employment

MAX Employment (2015) were a type of 'preferred supplier' of volunteer labour to SecondBite. The idea of the partnership was to provide a more consistent supply of already vetted volunteers to SecondBite, while providing opportunities for these volunteers to gain experience and then possibly paid employment – especially with SecondBite's food industry donor partners and in-kind supporters (e.g. Coles Supermarkets); which according to SecondBite management involved MAX Employment paying SecondBite a fee for providing this service (Respondent A 2014, pers. comm., 16 October). Similar to how food donors could consolidate their surplus food donating activities through SecondBite (i.e. by dealing mainly with a food bank as a 'one stop shop' and not a large number of different charities directly), so too had SecondBite consolidated the task of vetting and recruiting potential volunteers. According to the SecondBite 2014 Annual Report:

> SecondBite works with Max Employment to help train Tasmanian work for the dole participants in areas including warehousing and logistics. This training has been successful in providing a pathway to a job and a better life. (SecondBite 2014, p. 20).

Whilst some volunteers had ultimately been employed by SecondBite itself, it remained contentious how many volunteers were subsequently employed through the Volunteer Pathways program (and by Coles Supermarkets, for example).

5.6.1.5 The Waterbridge Cooperative

The Waterbridge Project (which was funded for two years until 2016 by Medicare Local) was a community-based 'co-op' venture located at two community centres in adjoining low socio-economic suburbs in Southern Tasmania. Funding was provided to address the identified relevant social determinants of food insecurity (i.e. access and affordability to food). A number of activities were undertaken within the Waterbridge Project (including commencing two food gardens, a kitchen, and a shop located near one of the local community centres, which also served as a basis for some cooking and nutrition training). A full-time Project Manager was employed to manage the project and volunteers were sourced locally. The food shop, which aimed to match or better supermarket food prices, stocked fruits and vegetables purchased from wholesalers because (1) its own very small gardens were yet to be fully established, and (2) SecondBite was unable to supply donated food to the project because the food would have to be given away free of charge rather than sold (see the conditions if the Civil Liability Amendment Act 2008).

5.6.1.6 Tasmanian Prison Service (TPS) Gardens

The TPS garden had supplied around five tonnes of produce in total from 2012 to around 2016 expressly for donation to SecondBite. This represents a small volumetric portion of all food donations to SecondBite. However, not only did this provide SecondBite with a source of fresh food donations independent of the for-profit food and grocery supply chain, the garden project prison staff were apparently given opportunities to engage with the community and to learn

new skills (a Tasmanian TAFE horticulture course was to be piloted) and, once again, resulted in positive media coverage in 'The Mercury' and on ABC TV in 2013 and 2014). Also, a TPS Officer had apparently fulfilled a professional and personal commitment to provide opportunities for prisoners to enhance their rehabilitation through engaging in meaningful work (outside of, but related to, the prison enterprise system). A senior SecondBite manager stated during a TCFGA field trip to the TPS gardens that:

> The problem really is finding ways to reintegrate prisoners into the community…[he] understands and works as a consultant with the prison and is passionate about providing opportunities like for [name withheld] that you met at the prison garden. (Respondent A 2015, pers. comm., 20 August).

5.6.1.7 Other Value-adding Activities

Lesser-known value-adding activities observed in Australian food banks, aside from redistributing non-food items (i.e. personal care items) and packaging waste (as mentioned earlier) was the collection of donated live product (e.g. fish, pigs) and still growing produce (e.g. apples still on trees when donated). These activities provided growers and farmers with avenues to utilise what may have been 'walk-by' crops and to potentially recoup some income through tax deductions (see 'local food agenda'). The alternative to SecondBite organising volunteers to pick and return a crop such as apples (for example, as evidenced in 2014) for redistribution was often total wastage. A senior SecondBite manager with a strong interest in such projects stated:

> It's very satisfying knowing that we have volunteers that can be organised to pick crops that would otherwise be wasted…it's a win-win…we got several bins of apples that wouldn't be worth picking otherwise (Respondent A 2015, pers. comm., 20 August).

These 'gleaning, gardening, and farming' activities were emergent in the USA (Vitello et al. 2015) and, while SecondBite was supporting small-scale gardening activities, there were opportunities for developing more gleaning and farming based and other supply chain value-adding activities. For example, there was (according to the above source) in the planning phase

a project titled the ‘Decentralised Integrated Gardening System’ for which funding was being sought (Respondent A 2015, pers. comm., 20 August).

5.6.2 Food Waste Agenda

5.6.2.1 Environmental Management

The annual and sustainability reports of the major donors to the food banks (e.g. see Woolworth’s Ltd Social Responsibility Report 2013) and of the food banks themselves contained the claims about ‘rescuing food’ in order to avoid landfilling and the related benefits of the greenhouse gas emissions avoided. However, the time critical management of food waste, and the optimisation of value adding as a result of the most appropriate usage of food waste, was an ongoing challenge that did not stop with food business managers. However, there was no evidence of any holistic approach to ‘greening’ supply chains, ‘closed-loop’ supply chains and other similar systems that would see food waste managed throughout its entire life-cycle across the multiple organisations involved, including by the downstream partners of food banks. It was found that subsequent actors and organisations downstream of donating food organisations appeared to have diminishing evident systems and procedures in place in order to optimise value from food waste, including SecondBite and its and social welfare organisational partners. These downstream partners had focused on nutritional and food security issues as a part of their social agendas. Upstream partners had emphasised the act of donating to food banks without any ongoing environmental management responsibility for the surpluses once sent downstream. Absent was a formally expressed operational environmental policy or any direct social action on food waste in food supply chains. Even branded programs in other food banks with potentially much public appeal were not accompanied by any systematic program evaluation and outcome measures. For example, OzHarvest had partnered with the United Nations ‘SAVE FOOD’ program, Foodbank had entered into a relationship with AusVeg, and FareShare undertook branded value adding activities to reduce its own ‘in-

house' food waste (e.g. with Melbourne Zoo and compost products). It appeared that marketing and operational imperatives that grew the food bank's business were given priority over environmental sustainability policy implementation.

5.6.2.2 Lengthening of Food Bank Integrated Supply Chains

The issue of the environmental sustainability implications of integrating food banks into food supply chains were evident but were considered less of a strategic management priority than social welfare considerations. For example, SecondBite in Launceston had begun exploring the exchange of food surpluses between interstate branches of SecondBite. According to SecondBite management this exchange was initiated and piloted by SecondBite Tasmania after an exchange of food between Melbourne and Launceston in late 2014. As a result, the CEO and National Manager (Operations) had visited SecondBite Launceston to take note of how the distribution system had developed in Tasmania. According to the aforementioned Operations Manager:

> There were five bins of produce and we had to find outlets for it…Produce to the People was one but there was an opportunity for us to send some to Melbourne. They send down yoghurt and other stuff but we're talking about a lot of food that comes out of here [the northwest] that could be used in Melbourne. (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

> It was our idea…we've led the way. The CEO came down to see the operation…there are four Operations Mangers coming to look at how we do things next month. (Respondent O 2015, pers. comm., 15 January).

Therefore, as shown in Figure 5.1 (please refer to Appendix D), the advent of food banking in Tasmania had resulted in a 'cascading' flow of value adding activities and a lengthening of local food supply chains (i.e. to Melbourne and back) that had both positive and negative social and environmental implications along the for-profit food and grocery supply chains involved. With regard to above social and other agendas, and in contrast to the management of purely logistical activities, there was no evidence of any systematically applied program or project management systems or techniques that would address the issues that arose. While program

and project evaluation was mentioned in meeting agendas, there was no evidence of any of this chapter's activities being evaluated for their actual net social, environmental, economic or other positive or negative sustainability impacts; there was instead the previously mentioned activity-based measure of SROI.

5.7 Changing Strategic Priorities and Value Creation Emphasis

5.7.1 Emphasised Growth Strategy: Impact on Value Creating Priorities

Since the food bank became established it took advantage of its ability to quickly implement new activities that afforded one or more strategic advantages, not least of which were: raising its profile, building good will, better servicing the supply chain, and maintaining a social agenda which was at times at odds with the food and grocery supply chain's cost and profit focus. Social innovations (e.g. EFROS, Healthy Hampers) and activities undertaken over the years (see Tables 5.3 and 5.4), were noted as diverse, innovative but small and unevaluated. Two categories had emerged from the data referred to as: (1) mainly food distribution oriented, and (2) mainly food production oriented, activities and operating models. At its core, SecondBite's model was basically food redistribution oriented. There was however an emphasis on fresh food logistics.

> SecondBite is committed to improving access to fresh healthy food amongst people in need throughout Australia. To do so, we are officially committing to rescue and redistribute: 95%...nutritious food, and 75%...fresh fruit and vegetables (SecondBite 2016, p. 1).

SecondBite committed more resources to 'physical' rather than the intangible activities around the social welfare aspects of its social mission. Furthermore, given SecondBite's growth strategy, lack of environmental programs (and the Food Program Manager Position being flagged for redundancy upon the retirement of the incumbent); a more 'operational' than 'food system issues' narrative was evident in later years. A senior SecondBite manager had emphasised operational growth:

> we want to grow...we want more food...my objective is the same – to help people, but I just don't agree on the same methods (Respondent B 2014, pers. comm., 1 September).

However, in 2015-16 SecondBite revisited their strategy and looked toward undertaking more food production. Food production could emerge as a part of adopting the FareShare model (as FareShare's management had approached SecondBite in 2015 and talks were ongoing in late 2015) or further developing and scaling up the SecondBite in Schools (SIS) program that had already been described.

5.7.2 Social Mission and Growth Strategy

Originally the food bank dealt with the potential problems associated with its seemingly conflicting growth and social agendas (i.e. accessing more and more food waste to feed more and more hungry people) with a vision of self-redundancy:

> If the food supply system was sustainable and all Australians had access, SecondBite would no longer need to exist. It is to this end that SecondBite works every day (SecondBite 2012, p. 1).

A different food bank with an emphasis on food waste reduction put the 'self-redundancy' 'rhetoric' this way. According to an OzHarvest manager:

> Things are getting better…When we're finished with food waste we won't be needed - we'll go on to do other things (Respondent D 2015, pers. comm., 25 March).

These statements were however made in the context of the reality of the continual growth of food banking organisations in Australia, and in the face of the four Australian food banks' own evidence of increased amounts of food waste produced; increased donations to food banks; and increased year on year demand for food banking products and services (see, for example, the Foodbank 'Hunger Report' series, and the other food bank's Annual Reports). There was no evidence of any Australian food banks including SecondBite actually undertaking activities that would contribute to less food waste being produced in the first instance or to considering anything other than continued growth in their food waste collection activities as outlined

throughout this chapter. SecondBite reported in 2012 that it had set up ‘The Future Trust’ in 2008 to:

> ensure the work of SecondBite grows and continues in perpetuity (SecondBite Annual Report 2012, p. 17).

SecondBite’s strategy focus was now on servicing the for-profit food and grocery supply chain’s major food donor’s requirements in order to grow its own operations. Success in terms of integration into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain and rapid growth was overwhelmingly evident and shared value creation was now more tangibly evident in supply chain operational terms than in addressing ‘Food System Agenda’ issues per se.

5.8 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter provided an analysis of the supply chain integration process implemented by the SecondBite organisation into an Australian for-profit supply chain and the shared value created since its inception in 2005. It did so by examining the case data about what was viewed by the food bank’s management as its strategic priorities and culminated in the two depictions presented (a process model and a surplus food supply chain). The following chapter provides a discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the nature of the integration processes and value adding priorities outlined in this chapter.

Chapter Six

6.0 Discussion

6.1 Chapter Objectives

The objective of this chapter is to address the aim of better understanding the processes and the value creation implications of the integration of a not-for-profit organisation into a for-profit food and grocery supply chain. This will be done by discussing three major processes apparent in Chapter Five's data: (1) 'broader strategic priorities' (2) 'collaborative value creation', and (3) 'CSR and sustainability issues'.

6.2 Broader Strategic Priorities

6.2.1 Social and Political Networking and Influencing

The data showed that the food bank's strategic priorities changed over time but remained influenced by its early efforts to establish itself as a small not-for-profit organisation fairly reliant upon its relationship with the food industry, governments, philanthropists and other diverse supporters. As such, and consistent with SCM's more complex forms of supply chain (i.e. 'ultimate supply chain'), actors and institutions outside of the day to day operational realm of the food supply chains became very influential in shaping the manner of the integration of the food bank, discussed as follows.

The nature of the Tasmanian food bank's new regional operating environment and its 'fresh' rather than 'shelf staple food' redistribution model meant that the food bank's management had to commence with a completely new business model. Prior to the emergent national partnerships between food banks and supermarket chains, regional food banks had to establish their own operations and to build trust among a wide range of stakeholder groups. The food

bank established its social and business reputation early in its business life-cycle and was able quickly integrate into an existing set of established social and business networks. The social networking that led to the establishment and success of the food bank started out on a small scale in 2008, and then increased in scale and intensity over the following years. Having been introduced to the key figures in the food industries through social and political networks, the food bank's management explained the value proposition on offer and, gradually, from a small number of donors increased its food collection activities. The manner in which this occurred was through the agency of both existing (e.g. 'Rotary' and Reclink) and new local contacts (e.g. SRT Logistics) whom were met through community organisations and the food and grocery industries. The implications were that where a food industry member was also a member of community organisations (e.g. Rotary), these donors were able to offer surplus food as a part of their community and business obligations. However, more food bank management effort was required in order to support such informal arrangements.

6.2.2 Institutional Changes

The rules and processes surrounding food banking were set out explicitly in the charitable, tax deductibility status of food banks, the protection of food donor organisations from legal liability and, by default, the commercial parameters through banning the sale of surplus food. Whilst these rules and processes are open to interpretation, in practice the food industry's needs are paramount and 'protected' by the various legislation. However, from the viewpoint of the food bank, these needs are necessarily balanced with other stakeholder needs (community organisations, governments and social welfare organisations) to ensure that: (1) there is an outlet for the reutilisation of food surpluses downstream, and (2) to protect the food bank's reputation. In other words, the legitimate and responsible donation of surplus food is not a process (whether described as CSV or not) which simply starts and ends with the food donor

or the food bank. The more complex surplus food part of the local food supply chains (see Figure 5.1) came about as a result of three main institutional changes that were largely driven by the food bank.

The first important institutional change leveraged by the food bank that affected the nature of its supply chain integration was in the area of government policy and support for food banking generally in Tasmania. The resulting support was most tangibly evidenced through the Tasmanian Government's support for the abovementioned legislative changes (Civil Liability Amendment Act) but also in changes to the funding of emergency food relief, which led to public funding of the food bank. Secondly, whilst this funding was relatively small, it became a recurrent part of the public budget. The implications being that food banking was now a part of public policy in Tasmania and therefore, by default, subject to certain public accountabilities and scrutiny (e.g. it must attempt to supply acceptable standards of surplus food product to the charities – not just pass on food industry waste). Therefore, the food bank could not simply partner with a food organisation and operate in isolation of other organisations and their needs (e.g. charities needs and funding bodies' public accountability needs). Viewing the food bank's supply chain position as such would provide only a limited understanding of food banking as it currently operates in Australia and Tasmania; the food bank's success is not simply the result of a fortuitous, private (commercial-in-confidence based) concern relating to the partnership between the food bank and its major donor. The food bank provides a systematic, publicly acceptable means of dealing with supply chain surpluses due to the institutional support it receives for undertaking both its upstream and downstream activities.

Thirdly, the manner in which the food bank intervened into the institutionalised arrangements around emergency food relief funding had practical social welfare implications for how food surpluses were redistributed in Tasmania. That is, food banks do not promote the use of food

vouchers or other traditional mechanisms, but instead focus mainly on redistributing surplus food as food hampers. Therefore, the food hampers (which in some cases is a food bank branded product) consisting of the food industries' food surpluses became a major part of the food donor's, the food banks' and the government's emergency food relief policies and practices. The further implications are that: (1) there was more demand for the products and services of the food bank in Tasmania, (2) the food bank grew as a result of this demand, and in turn, 3) there was more capacity for the supply chain to deal with its food surpluses and therefore more demand could be met in future. The strategy to influence all of the relevant food industries', social welfare and government organisations' various policies and practices is discussed in the following sections.

6.2.3 Creating New Demand

In this case, large food retailers did not create a CSV scenario (as portrayed in the literature and shown in Figure 2.1) simply by donating surplus food to food banks. The food bank was responsible for creating demand in the supply chain for its services where none had existed previously. One way to explain the nature and the implications of the intervention of a food bank into all three local social welfare, food and grocery and public policy spaces, is to ask why the food bank is really needed in the region - let alone in the food supply chains - in the first instance. The data suggested that the food bank tailored and pushed its marketing messages and offerings to three different audiences based on a value offering of efficiently redistributing fresh surplus food. Fundamental to the interventionist strategy was, however, also securing its supply chain partnership position and securing access to free business inputs. Whilst the subsequent growth of the food bank (based on its access to free inputs) could be explained simply as a part of the general growth in the availability of food surpluses, the argument put here is that the case study food bank was unlikely to have succeeded over time - gaining high

levels of social legitimacy - by relying upon such a growth in potential supply alone. Furthermore, the legislative changes referred to earlier did not compel potential food donors to donate but, rather, protected them from legal liability when they voluntarily chose to do so. Where donations were made to the food bank, it was not guaranteed a steady or continual supply of surplus food donations from any one donor. Instead of any entitlement, the food bank not only changed the institutional and policy landscape, but was also able to create demand in such a way as to integrate itself into the food and grocery supply chain as a part of its broader legitimated social agenda. This was achieved in part by leveraging its value offering to create demand where little existed by promising value to multiple stakeholders *simultaneously*.

In summary of this part of the chapter, under a simplistic CSV-like view of food banking, the primary purpose for a not-for-profit food bank existing in food supply chains in the region was to collect food industry surpluses and to find uses for them in order to address social welfare issues - only whilst this practice serviced, and added value to, a given food business's needs. However, in order to understand how a not-for-profit food bank succeeded in the supply chain, it must be understood as consisting of its multiple stakeholder's economic, social welfare, environmental and ethical needs that it as an intermediary represented in one way or another at a given point in time. As will be explained in subsequent sections, this intermediary role appears to underpin the food bank's appeal as a practical 'cause' with which not only food donors but many stakeholder groups with a diversity of social agendas wish to be associated.

6.2.4 Multiple Stakeholder Agenda Management

The data demonstrates that the food bank's management needed to understand the issues surrounding creating widespread demand (or, attending to multiple stakeholder issues and interests in food banking) and to promote its: (1) food waste, (2) local food and nutrition, and

(3) food security agendas. The nature of the food bank's management of these multiple stakeholder agendas has implications for its role and performance in the supply chain.

One reason why a 'blended' value offering was required was to develop the downstream social channels of redistribution, without which food banking would not exist in its current form. Another advantage of appealing to multiple stakeholders was that the food bank was able to lower its cost base through harnessing a willing volunteer labour force, government and other public sources of funding, to offer even more value to the food supply chain upon which it became reliant for its success. Such success in securing supply occurred because of a low-cost waste removal service provided by the food bank to the food industries. That is, the food bank gradually became a viable option with which the food industries could partner along with many but not all of the social welfare charities (NB: it has already been mentioned that the charities are able to redirect their resources elsewhere by accepting free food from food banks.) The result of these arrangements was the much promoted and popular practice of food banking becoming fully established in Tasmania (where it was previously non-existent prior to 2009). However, the social welfare organisations (i.e. downstream partners), that could be viewed as outside of the food supply chain arrangements conventionally portrayed in some literature, had a direct impact on the manner in which surplus food could be efficiently redistributed in Tasmania and, therefore, had an impact upon the upstream food donors' policies and practices in the broader field of food waste management.

Alternatively, from a for-profit food business point of view, there may have been more emphasis on competitiveness, productivity improvements and reputational management, and on a single 'internally generated social agenda' than on a multitude of difficult to manage social welfare issues (Porter & Kramer 2011). However, the food bank strategy was to establish the institutional preconditions of its success by carefully managing the real and perceived needs of

a range of actors. This is an important point because if the food bank promoted the view that servicing the food donor's (and its own) business needs was the main reason for its existence, then it appeared less likely that it would maintain its particular appeal. Similarly, if the food bank was simply a waste management option for the food industries then the food donors could not draw upon the reputational benefits that existed in food banking in Tasmania from a social agenda viewpoint. The data suggested that the strong appeal of being associated with the food bank, for the diverse supporter base (including the food industries), was dependent on the food bank's promotion of its social purposes as much as its physical redistribution capabilities. The next sections discuss how and why the food bank became an increasingly attractive food industry partner and a trusted member of a supply chain.

6.3 Collaborative Value Creation - Food Industry Supply Chain Alignment

This section discusses collaborative value creation upstream of the food bank and the implications of how, after the food bank had influenced the preconditions for its need in the local communities in which it operated, it continually shaped its activities in order to better service the needs of local for-profit food and grocery supply chains (i.e. further integrated). The following food bank supply chain integration strategies involved (1) learning what the industry needed locally, and (2) flexibility in its approach to providing value to the supply chain. Therefore the food bank played a facilitating role for supply chain members to reconfigure their own value chains around sending unwanted food waste to food banks (rather than to landfill facilities and other low order uses) to gain not only operational, but other benefits, discussed as follows.

6.3.1 A ‘One-stop-shop’ Service

The food bank provided an efficient ‘one-stop shop’ solution for the management of food surpluses where previously supermarkets dealt with multiple parties directly and used different pathways for food waste. Some of these alternative pathways for waste may have been cheaper to use but had less popular appeal and value adding potential than turned out to be the case with food banking (i.e. the landfilling of ‘good’ food is frowned upon by many stakeholders). As per the literature around CSV and ‘Strategic CSR for Competitive Advantage’, the food bank succeeded in securing increasing levels of surplus food by constantly changing its internal activities (in order to better address its own social agenda). This was done by providing collection infrastructure (e.g. industry standard CHEP bins and pallets as described in previous chapters). The food bank further developed its food industry standard activities and introduced new practices to support its donors and further downstream also its recipients (e.g. integrating the collection of surplus food from donors with its deliveries of food to recipients). Whilst the food bank can provide a downstream charity partner with only limited services and products (such as free food hampers), with regard to supply chain integration processes there are a larger number of advantages and benefits afforded to the upstream supply chain members, including the larger food retailer donors. Whilst the food bank was a relatively small food distribution operation, there was a reluctance to refuse food donations or to ‘pick and choose’. As a result, early in its life-cycle, the food bank had to draw upon its good will, for example, in order to use other food organisation’s storage space. This support sometimes took the form of collaborative efforts within the supply chain or between the food bank and its competitors but, in both cases, value was increasingly delivered to the for-profit supply chains, discussed as follows.

6.3.2 Consolidation of State-wide (and National) Effort

The food bank also offered efficiencies through a single collection 'point' for its products and services: (1) it collected all food surpluses from all of the major donor's outlets efficiently, and (2) managed all surpluses previously collected by other entities, mainly the charities (who were no longer the default donation option for the food donors). An example of the benefits of the consolidated effort was that the food donor was able to deal with one rather than multiple organisational entities. Furthermore, the food bank's parent expanded nationally to better service the national presences of the two large retailers (i.e. the 'national one-stop-shop'). This continual growth in the food bank's activities (state-wide in this case) was not only for the purposes of servicing the food industry's needs but, also, was a factor in attracting more government funding because the food bank's management felt they would otherwise miss out on funding that has traditionally been directed to larger organisations now present in Tasmania such as Foodbank Australia Incorporated.

6.3.3 Volunteer Labour

In Chapter One some controversy around the growing food banking sector and its close relationship with the food and grocery industries was mentioned. Porter and Kramer (2011) state that, under CSV, a business wanting to create social value should pay higher and not lower prices to certain supplier partners in the supply chain. The reality was that the food bank drew upon its good will and its status as a charity in order to recruit many people willing and able to work in one way or another free-of-charge as volunteers. As mentioned in previous chapters, this afforded not only the food bank but also the whole supply chain (in conjunction with public funding) a lower cost structure for dealing with food surpluses. The food bank's extensive use of volunteer labour was one part of a package of resource efficiency benefits, which could be

derived by the supply chain. Compared with these types of more tangible resources productivity benefits of food banking, the following were some of the less tangible benefits.

6.3.4 Risk Management

The food bank not only encouraged the preconditions for food donors to manage the larger risks associated with the donation of surplus food (i.e. through the Civil Liability Amendment Act) but also played a role in taking responsibility for managing the day to day food product chain risks. Complaints about the food items in food hampers (e.g. relating to use-by dates and quality issues) originating downstream from consumers were directed to the charities and then back to the food bank; the food bank then dealt with the issues (and in the cases evidenced, food bank staff did not even countenance contacting the upstream food donor). Other more general complaints that arose from time to time about the quality or nutritional standards of the food hampers were also dealt with by the food bank. While this arrangement represents a practical and pragmatic approach, it also kept the food donor (and to a certain extent the government supporters) at arms-length from the downstream issues that arose. Also at arms-length is the issue of the 'end-of-life management' of food surpluses that could not be fully reutilised (i.e. that revert back to food waste) (see Figure 5.1 in Appendix D and refer to Part 6.4 below). The management of this waste became a risk management activity and an opportunity for the food bank, rather than an ongoing problem for the donor food business.

6.3.5 Taxation

The tax deductibility status of food donations was exploited by the food bank in several ways. Firstly, with regard to the point about consolidation above, the 'one stop shop' allowed for the easier reckoning of potential tax deductions at one source. Secondly, the food bank could also use its tax deductibility to assist donors (e.g. growers) that stood to lose a crop (e.g. due to

climatic conditions or rejection by the market on various quality or aesthetic grounds) by offering a tax deduction to them in return for a donation. Often these donors were also the suppliers to the major food retailers in Tasmania. The implication for the food bank social agenda was that the food bank was not just a passive recipient of surplus food donations from 'rational acting' benevolent major donors. By using its charitable status, the food bank through taxation mechanisms, shaped some aspects of the supply chain social responsibility behaviours. In doing so it made itself more attractive to the supply chain by offering an outlet for failed or rejected food - complete with a package of reputational benefits. Another set of integration factors coming out of the strategic priorities of the food bank related to its increasingly prominent role in: (1) reputational management, and (2) social marketing and communications.

6.3.6 Reputational Management

Whilst the data supported the notion that food donors sought productivity improvement from the food bank (as per the above points), there was also additional CSR and reputational factors at play. These reputational issues are particularly important in the Australian context where the media routinely report that two largest food retailers controlling the majority of the national food and grocery market. As mentioned in Chapter Two, perhaps because of their much publicised duopoly, the two major food retailers had recent reputational issues, including receiving large fines from the authorities, for example, for unconscionable supply chain conduct (ACCC 2014). In short, these major retailers not only needed the productivity benefits on offer, but also needed the reputational benefits from a close association with food banking. Therefore, to simply attribute the success of the food bank to the increased availability of food surpluses in the food supply chain to the rational acting, efficiency seeking behaviours of food supply chain members (i.e. a resource productivity improvement strategy) is not alone a satisfactory explanation for the integration of a food bank in a food supply chain. For example,

the main response from the food supply chain's major retailers to the reputational concerns in the area of food waste management has been the 'zero food waste to landfill by 2015' policy. Woolworths, for example, had first broached 'zero waste' in around 2007. By 2011 it reported that food waste was both a major social *and* environmental management priority (Woolworths Ltd 2011a, 2012). By 2014, similar to Coles Supermarkets, Woolworths had changed from a target year of 'zero food waste by 2015' to 2020. The 'zero food waste to landfill' policies led to further and more formalised integration of and support for the food bank and, even furthermore, both Coles Supermarkets and Woolworths appeared to be in competition with each other with regard to first achieving this goal. The food bank was able to support the 'zero food waste' policy, not only operationally (by aligning its activities with the supply chain as per the discussion so far) but also through its own internal activities such as its measuring and communicating its successes.

6.3.7 Measuring Progress

The food bank's main food retail collaborator shared its somewhat commercially sensitive food waste data with the food bank. In return the food bank 'alerted' the donor about donating behaviours on a store by store basis and attempted to rectify by negotiation what it saw as a shortfall in donations or a potential donating behavioural problem at the store level. Notwithstanding that there were ongoing management challenges from a food bank view, including that some individual stores did not 'perform' to expectations, the implications were that the food bank was: (1) trusted with the data, and (2) able to use the data to its advantage, and (3) could focus firmly on tangible 'food collected' data as a measure of the success of its activities, growth and social impact. This situation further aligned the food bank with industry standard data gathering and reporting activities and, more importantly, the types of performance and social impact measures (e.g. SROI) that also underpin the measurement of

CSV. Therefore, the measurement of progress on addressing the issue of food waste within food and grocery supply chains became focussed on volumetric collections of existing food waste rather than on its actual reduction in the first instance.

6.3.8 Communications

When communicating messages around food system sustainability issues such as reducing food waste upstream in the food supply chain, the style and content of the annual and sustainability reporting of the food bank was consistent with the food donors' reports. While the food bank had previously acknowledged a 'broken food system', and 'shameful waste' it also sought growth opportunities by later referring to the 'win-win' narrative of food banking and describing its association with the food retail partner as an exemplar of Porter and Kramer's (2011) CSV. The implication was that there were more mutually reinforcing reputational, policy and promotional activities as the relationships grew between the supply chain members. Meanwhile, the growing collection activities had both positive and negative supply chain social impacts (e.g. there is potentially more and more food waste). Despite some acknowledgement of this challenge, the food bank had succeeded by focussing on the following reality of food waste in food supply chains and on its practical responses downstream (rather than on waste prevention upstream in the chain). That is, the food bank efficiently collected food surpluses from food donors that may otherwise have gone to landfill as food waste, and the food bank actually did redistribute a large portion of these surpluses to the charities. Therefore the claims made by the multiple organisations involved (e.g. the relative reductions in the amount of greenhouse gases in the atmosphere and relative reductions in hunger in communities) were not without foundation. As a result, there was a constant promotion of these positive benefits and this an important factor associated with food bank supply chain integration. However, the food bank and its partners could not *socially* responsibly manage food waste in a holistic

manner without including emissions from the downstream channels (or the charity partners). Noting the different strategies available under SSCM (in Chapter Two), this point is further discussed with regard to the manner in which supply chain CSR and sustainability policy arrangements affected food banking in Tasmania.

6.4 CSR and Sustainability Issues in the Supply Chain

6.4.1 Socially Responsible Food Redistribution

While the fuller integration and then close collaboration with the food supply chain and its leading members further facilitated the downstream social welfare value creating activities that have already been outlined in Chapters Four and Five, there were implications stemming from the promotion of the CSV-like arrangements because other supply chain stakeholders had different views of the shared value outcomes (e.g. food quality) and their impact measurement (see Mulgan 2010). For example, food quality issues highlighted the interdependent nature of the diversity of supply chain actors and their direct and indirect roles in providing acceptable quality food products and services to downstream social welfare recipients. Or, the multiple stakeholder, 'whole of life cycle' issues in reutilising previously unwanted food for human consumption came to the fore (refer to the flow of this unwanted food in Figure 5.1 and to SSCM and 'closed loop supply chains' in Chapter Two).

For example, from a CSR and sustainability viewpoint, with regard to achieving 'zero food waste to landfill' (already mentioned above), the nature of the downstream reutilisation of surplus food was identified as an important factor. It was the food bank's role to satisfactorily service the channels of redistribution downstream and, in doing so, provide the capacity that in turn supported the social responsibility agenda of the food donors (i.e. facilitating any 'zero waste' claims). Or, the food bank provided downstream social channels of redistribution that

in turn provided a credible or legitimate outlet for the apparently socially responsible management of food waste through the agency of food banking practices. However, the expectations of these channels needed to be managed due to the uneven nature of the quality and the volumes and types of incoming food donations. The data in Chapter Five showed that one way in which the food bank managed the variation in supply and demand was to share resources with other food banks (including competitors) and other supply chain members (that were not necessarily aligned with the major donor partner). Another way was to develop new products and services (e.g. frozen meals using oversupplied ingredients then stored in readiness for later use). As such, the food bank innovated to credibly manage not only the increasing amounts of surplus food but also the uneven supply of the different types of surplus food. This meant that the food bank provided the supply chain with a sustainable value-adding pathway for food surpluses that met the requirements of the CSR policy of the high-profile supply chain partner. This led to the food bank not only becoming a highly trusted food supply chain member but also a much needed part of the relatively newly branded, for-profit supply chain social programs (e.g. 'Coles Community Food' and 'Coles Community Connect with SecondBite').

6.4.2 Influence of the Food Bank on Supply Chain Members

While the power of the major food retailers to influence food supply chains in a negative manner has already been mentioned, the food retailers involved in food banking also appeared to positively influence the food supply chains on social and environmental initiatives (see for example Bhaskaran et. al. 2006). In this case, the food bank (whilst a smaller and less powerful entity) was implicated in influencing such positive supply chain social behaviours. The clearest expression of the influence of the food bank is the implementation of supply chain's community food and food waste reduction programs; these programs are examples of not only the integration of the food bank but also the potential opportunities for the food bank to

continue to influence the even greater reutilisation (albeit without any evidence of the primary *prevention*) of food waste. Similarly, the resulting supply chain community food programs provide even more revenue and profile raising opportunities for the food bank. Therefore, with regard to MSCs (see Chapter Two), from the food bank's viewpoint, it appeared to play an 'intermediary' role, in terms of food and grocery supply chain collaborations but, over time, as a result of its development of new markets for food surpluses, played a 'transformative' role with regard to the broader 'surplus food supply chain'.

As a result, the manner in which the supply chain invested in the redistribution of surpluses for addressing hunger in communities, mainly through the food retail majors and the food banks, became more sophisticated over time. The branded and intellectual property protected relationship between Coles and SecondBite consisted of an overall community food program that included a direct food pick-up (collection) mechanism for the charities. Coles Community Food (and its competitor, 'Woolworths Fresh Food Rescue') are the formalised, national, commercial expressions of using surplus food to feed less fortunate people in Australia. One part of 'Coles Community Food' is 'Coles Community Connect with SecondBite'. The food bank became more reliant than before upon 'Community Connect' as a source of growth and funding. The latest figure stated by a senior SecondBite manager (during a conversation held on 20 August 2015) being around 40% of all redistributed food nationally, with more than 20% in Tasmania coming from this source (Respondent A 2015, pers. comm., 20 August); the food bank and food retailer supermarket partnerships became mutually reinforcing as a means of managing food surpluses and to gain the defined value-adding benefits. As such, the food bank and the food donor continued to build their reputations while growing the channels of redistribution. In return, Coles Supermarkets provided increased levels of physical and financial support to the food bank thus further increasing the food bank's physical capabilities (SecondBite Annual Report 2014). And so on it goes.

Evidence of the changing nature of the supply chain integrating collaborations was seen as Coles Supermarkets had further realigned its marketing activities and entered into formal cross-promotional, corporate profile raising and fund raising arrangements with the food bank. This occurred by Coles Supermarkets collecting donations on behalf of the food bank from its retail stores (e.g. in Glenorchy, Tasmania in 2014). These integration factors around the pursuit of more interconnected, sophisticated polices and food redistribution activities led to the situation where the food bank became a 'normalised' member of the supply chain (and the term CSV emerged in food banking circles in the SecondBite Annual Report in 2014). The food bank needed the retail major's support in order to grow its channels of redistribution at the going rates and, in return, the major retailers needed the food bank in order to manage food waste in a fairly socially responsible manner. This reality was reflected in an emergent food bank management strategic priority.

6.4.3 Strategic Priority 'Shift'

The self-redundancy strategy vision (mentioned in Chapter Five) was communicated in the context of the continual growth of the organisation. The vision then changed to become more consistent with a strategy of national spread and continual growth that was needed to service the food donor's supply chains (especially the retailers which have state-wide or national presences) and for providing more potential social value adding opportunities to local communities. Therefore, the data supports the notion that the food bank's focus was on servicing food donor requirements in order to grow - and to succeed by adding social value to food surpluses. The implication of this 'sustainable growth' rather than 'self-redundancy' strategy relates to several points made earlier in the chapter; one point being that in order for a new, relatively small, fairly independent not-for-profit to succeed in a for-profit supply chain (that is heavily influenced by a major food retailer), it had to be flexible in its dealings with the

food industries while also attending to multiple stakeholder social issues downstream. That is, the food bank could not simultaneously grow and undertake its charitable works in a consistent and reliable manner without: (1) a sustainable supply of free of charge business inputs, and (2) by creating sustainable demand through well-managed social channels of redistribution. The food bank appeared to be more confidently able to pursue and to communicate such a reality without adversely impacting its long-standing reputation as a charity.

In summary of the shifting strategic priority, the resulting type of value creating conditions appears CSV-like. However, due to the detailed inquiry afforded by quasi-longitudinal analysis, the data shows that the apparent CSV-like conditions are in fact more complex than portrayed in the literature and only occurred because the food bank had established over time suitable, alternative to landfill, channels of redistribution and continued to develop other related value adding products (e.g. ready meals) and services (e.g. gleaning was also mentioned). In doing so, the food bank increased its attractiveness to existing and potential new food donors and financial supporters (i.e. multiple agendas and stakeholders). This wide supporter base made possible the everyday activities of the food bank, including the efficient collection of surplus food, and so on the social value generating process was evidenced.

6.5 Summary of the Integration Process and its Implications

Studying the integration over time of a not-for-profit food bank into a food and grocery supply chain in Tasmania saw three sets of processes identified. These were discussed as they related to broader strategic priorities, different shared value ‘outcomes’ and supply chain CSR or sustainability issues arising as summarised in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1 Processes and critical factors in the integration of a not-for-profit food bank into a for-profit food supply chain and the implications discussed

Process	Critical factors	Implications
Broader strategic priorities	Social and political networking and influencing	Raises food bank profile, agitates political will Leads, in part, to later recurrent public funding
	Institutional changes	Affords food donors legal protection (to stimulate positive donating behaviours)
	Creating new social demand for food bank products and services	New operation commences in new market Birth of social channels of redistribution
	Diverse, multiple stakeholder management	Supports and balances the creation of social demand, the securing of supply (business inputs), public funding, civil support (volunteer labour)
Shared value generation	Alignment with physical food industry supply chain distribution activities (providing tangible benefits to supply chains)	Food banking is now an 'easier' food waste management option through a physical 'one-stop-shop' service Growth and spread of the food bank's redistribution activities (including social channels)
	Facilitation of taxation, reputational and marketing advantages and providing less tangible and/or less publicised benefits to smaller supply chain members	Supports the 'one-stop-shop' activities with mutually reinforcing advantages
	Facilitation of new and/or improved food bank own Community Food Programs (detailed in Chapter Five)	Maintains and enhances social reputation and trust in the broader community
CSR/sustainability within the supply chain	CSR, sustainability 'zero food waste to landfill' strategy sees increased mutual dependence	Food bank adopts policy, reporting methods of the food donors/supply chain Branded, private food programs and CSV narrative emerges Less emphasis on food bank's own operational environmental management and *net* social impacts and more on 'Zero Waste'

The first set of factors in Table 6.1 above related to the process of the shaping of the institutional preconditions for the emergence of the successful food bank, involving social and business networking and influencing to bring about the political will to change legislation and policy. The second set of shared value factors were those involving the alignment and realignment of the food bank's internal value chain to the food supply chain activities in order to secure sustainable supply and, in turn, to better service the channels of redistribution. This led to the food bank's fuller membership of the food supply chains for some fairly obvious supply chain productivity improvement (and other mutually beneficial) reasons. In turn, the membership led to the systematisation of surplus food collections and the 'normalisation' of food banking as a large scale surplus food management practice in Tasmania for the first time. Thirdly, CSR and sustainability in the supply chain factors saw full integration evidenced by collaborations involving the emergence of privately branded 'community' food programs, the food bank's adoption of the industries' food waste measurement and reporting methodologies and the narrative of CSV. However, the initial success of the food bank lay in addressing its multiple stakeholder's agendas and non-supply chain member collaborations (i.e. maintaining its broader appeal and own Community Food Programs) *and* trusted supply chain membership, through the social marketing of diverse value offerings to multiple stakeholders. At this point in time, the data suggested that without all of recurrent government funding, branded support from the more powerful supply chain members and collaborative ventures with others (including Foodbank Tasmania), food banking may not have become both efficient and socially, environmentally, economically and politically legitimated as a response to food waste and hunger issues in Tasmania. As a result, it appeared that the food bank was even more attractive to the food donor's reputational management and other needs than may have otherwise been the case if either one of purely social or economic or environmental stakeholder issues had been too narrowly pursued (or, even, were seen to be pursued) by the food bank.

6.6 Chapter Conclusion

This chapter discussed in three parts the strategic, value adding processes involved in a food bank's supply chain integration. Firstly, the chapter discussed the broader strategic priorities that influenced the manner in which subsequent integration of the food bank into the food supply chains occurred (e.g. public policy factors were discussed). Secondly, the supply chain value creation factors were discussed, including how the food bank aligned its physical activities and other less tangible activities in support of the 'one-stop-shop' value offering. The third set of factors discussed related to CSR and supply chain sustainability issues, seen through the example of the supply chain's 'zero food waste to landfill' policy implementation. The next chapter draws theoretical, empirical and practical conclusions about the implications discussed in this chapter of the integration of a not-for profit food bank into a for-profit supply chain.

Chapter Seven

7.0 Conclusions

7.1 Chapter Objectives

The objectives of this chapter are two-fold. Firstly, the chapter will discuss the practical and theoretical implications of the findings, including the contributions made by this thesis. Secondly, the chapter discusses the theoretical limitations of this study's findings including the use of the case study as a research strategy and will suggest avenues for further research.

7.2 Implications and Importance of the Findings

7.2.1 Theoretical Value and Limitations of CSV

This study's research setting was the case of the emergence, growth and success of a food bank with a social mission in a region of Australia where this food bank was the central point of reference in a supply chain operating environment involving surplus food redistribution through intermediary charities to less advantaged people in the community. As mentioned in Chapter One, such arrangements had been characterised and promoted as archetypical positive examples of Creating Shared Value (or, a 'win-win for business and society'). With regard to the discussion of supply chain theory in Chapter Two, value creation was considered to be a central organising feature of collaborative efforts to better integrate supply chains, including to address supply chain social impacts.

In this light, the process of value-adding to unwanted food surpluses - that would otherwise be destined for waste streams - appeared to be a practical and necessary course of action which could be understood and explained as an example of CSV. However, the proponents of CSV,

and of food banking as an archetypical positive example of CSV, may (unquestioningly) overplay the extent to which social value creation is solely due to CSV-like conditions (and see 'effectiveness' in the next section). Nonetheless, to complicate matters, 'synergistic' value-adding organisational relationships do exist in food banking in the case studied in Tasmania. Food industry supply chain member's corporate sustainability and marketing strategies and policies were linked with the strategies and policies of the not-for-profit food bank and this provided for relatively more socially responsible supply chain food waste management, and social welfare services in 2015 than previously existed in 2009.

7.2.2 CSR and Sustainability Not Replaced but Supported by CSV

However, this study suggests that a food bank's growth and success in pursuing its own agenda resulted not from CSV-like conditions alone but also from the broader ranging and longer-running food bank supply chain integration factors that have been outlined as the catalysts for the commencement of the systematic collection of food surpluses in Tasmania. As an alternative (or in addition) to CSV and a focus on the level of supply chain productivity improvements, food banking was found to be a broader social response. However, if this study of a food bank had been limited to a purely dyadic private sector and not-for-profit relationship within a more narrowly defined (theoretically conventional) food supply chain, and had done so from a food business unit viewpoint of current practice, then CSV could have more fully described and explained the emergence and success of food banking. In this case, from a not-for-profit viewpoint, when the redistribution of surplus food activities was added to the conventional food supply chain activities, the result was that multiple social agendas and issues had to be managed by the food bank. These agendas were not all business unit internally generated but were actually large intractable social problems with complex economic, social, moral and ethical questions attached to them (as the critics of CSV suggested in Chapter Two).

Therefore, the implication is that the food bank's supply chain integration relates as much to the differently focused corporate social responsibility, philanthropic, economic, sustainability, and other behaviours of the multiple stakeholders involved as it does to CSV. Viewing the supply chain integration and the success of the food bank solely through the lens of a food business and food bank collaboration and, as such through a CSV lens (in particular, 'reconfiguring the value chain' to address the food business's social impacts), provided a more limited understanding of the complexities and the social implications of the growth and success of the food bank than were provided in this study. In sum, 'apparent CSV' appeared to be a subset of a real but unspecified broader ranging social responsibility or sustainability response. At this level, the actual management of supply chain social impacts necessarily involved the concepts and practices of multiple stakeholder agenda management (and see the comments about the role of food banks in supply chains and MSCs further below). The resulting nature of the new supply chain arrangements that emerged in Tasmania in 2009 and developed over the following years, and that were required to put effect and legitimacy to the reuse of surplus food for human use at the current and likely future scales, were simple in their outward appearance and operation (easily labelled as a CSV partnership between Coles Supermarkets and SecondBite for the purposes of extracting benefits such as reputational capital) (Salamon 2012) but were more complex in their implications for both theory and not-for-profit management practices.

Against the more extreme of the critical views of food banks as being merely servants of the food industries, it was apparent in this case that while there was some evidence of the diminution of the food bank's own social agenda (changing food bank strategic management priorities), and the food bank's growth was in great part dependent upon food industry support, the food bank did not act solely as an agent for its donor partners' or the supply chain's food waste needs. An argument advanced in the last chapter's discussion was that the supply chain

integration occurred primarily as a result of the food bank: (1) seeking to secure a more sustainable supply of business inputs, but that this occurred, (2) in ways still meaningful to the social goals of the food bank (e.g. the provision of higher quality food to the charities), and (3) through the institutionalised support of multiple other stakeholders (e.g. public policy and funding).

Put differently, over time the food bank provided value-adding food waste management options and became integrated into the supply chain and 'closer' to the major donors but, rather than only act as a value-adding agent for the fairly powerful major food donor partner's food waste management needs, it also acted as a social agency for the needs of multiple stakeholders. Whether this is the same thing as a socially and environmentally effective food bank in terms of providing lasting social benefits, and whether an unbridled enthusiasm for food banking is justified, as it currently exists, remains contested (and raises questions for future research, as mentioned further on below). In this case, from the food bank viewpoint, it was apparent that a supply chain social impact issue such as food waste must necessarily be addressed by a number of diverse but fairly socially responsible organisations with different social agendas - working in concert, including even with competitor organisations, and must be underpinned by other relevant social institutions and actors.

7.2.3 CSV and Social Effectiveness

While there is an assumption in CSV that the positive environmental sustainability effects from food banking, for example, will simply flow on to society, in actual surplus food supply chain practice, there was no overarching strategy (or research agenda) accompanying or supporting such an assumption. For example, there were no SSCM or Integrated SSCM-like drivers such as stringent EU-like landfill directives and food waste regulations in Australia, nor were there other formalised responses such as voluntary USA-like industry driven initiatives on food bank

usage and impact measurement (see the USA's Food Waste Reduction Alliance and the report 'Analysis of U.S. Food Waste Among Food Manufacturers, Retailers, and Wholesalers' (2013), which includes food bank usage rates). This situation, where unknown levels of food waste continued to 'flow' or cascaded down through the supply chain (see Figure 5.1 in Appendix D), has theoretical implications for the use of food banking as an example of the successful application of CSV to *effectively* addressing a supply chain social issue in an integrated manner. Therefore, food banks and food retailers are not necessarily too closely 'intertwined', but the issue of accountability for waste management throughout the supply chain remains unaddressed under CSV-like conditions when regarded in isolation of the broader principles found in the literature (i.e. in Chapter Two). As such, in this case, CSV may be viewed as a form of collaborative effort that appears more effective (particularly in terms of marketing) when viewed in the business and society literature from a large, private sector business viewpoint, than it does when viewed from a not-for-profit's viewpoint of complex social and environmental management issues. When a not-for-profit manages such issues it must be aware of the supply chain's needs (including marketing needs) but must also pay attention to other factors.

7.2.4 Empirical and Practical Implications

7.2.4.1 Supply Chain Social Responsibility and Impact Measurement

When a not-for-profit organisation becomes a supply chain member and goes on to become closely implicated in the implementation of the lead organisation's CSV-like policies certain problems tend to arise. Residual food waste could simply be deliberately or otherwise sent downstream and into the public domain instead of being managed by the responsible organisations that take credit for the claimed positive outcomes of food banking. Or, put another way the 'cascading' of waste could be positive in its CSV effects or negative in its

social responsibility avoidance effects. Currently, instead of net usage (or net wastage) data, there are only CSV-like measures of the 'gross food volumes moved'. Based on this, the empirical problem arises that the only social impact research that exists in this field is from consultants to and from the food industries and food banks (based upon the aforementioned gross volumes) that are theoretical and problematical measures of Social Return on Investment (SROI). According to Mulgan (2010, p. 39), SROI is 'inherently unreliable' due to its 'often quite arbitrary estimate of costs and pay-backs' (see Mulgan 2010 for more on SROI issues). For practical reasons, SROI appeared to lack usefulness for the measurement of net social impact outcomes in this case. This is because, apart from any methodological problems, SROI ignored any negative downstream supply chain operational impacts of the rapidly growing food banking sector itself, along with problems in measuring social effectiveness across different sectors (private, NFP and government) (Mulgan 2010).

7.2.4.2 Competition and Collaboration amongst Food Banks

With the rapid growth and spread of food banks nationally, the issue arises of competition, especially among the four major Australian food banks, in providing food banking products and services. In any given geographical location in Australia there could be competition among the four larger and other smaller food banks. On the one hand, it may be better to have competition in business circles but, on the other hand, any resulting duplication of services (in Tasmania for example) has implications for the justification of the public funding of the food banks. Examples of successful food bank collaborations were only touched upon as a part of this study and these appeared to have resulted in the more efficient use of public and private sector resources.

7.2.4.3 The Role of Not-for-profits in for-Profit Supply Chains

Notwithstanding the comments about 'effectiveness' this case demonstrates that food banks are able to play an integrating and 'change agent' role that extends the current understanding of the issues in supply chain integration under CSV-like conditions involving not-for-profits. With regard to the MSC literature and collaborative efforts, while there was an obviously apparent 'intermediary' role for food banks in a conventional food and grocery supply chain integration sense (e.g. the industry's outsourcing of social responsibility for food waste management, and some related reputational issues beyond its scope), the data in this case (from a food bank viewpoint) supported a 'transformative' role within the local supply chains. That is, food banking in Tasmania did not exist prior to the establishment of SecondBite and an institutionalised food banking sector, and SecondBite performed a more diverse social change role with regard to the complexities seen along the 'surplus food supply chain'. These roles have already been outlined in detail and include creating and sustaining demand for surplus food products (social marketing) and the actual delivery of social welfare products and services (e.g. Community Food Program)

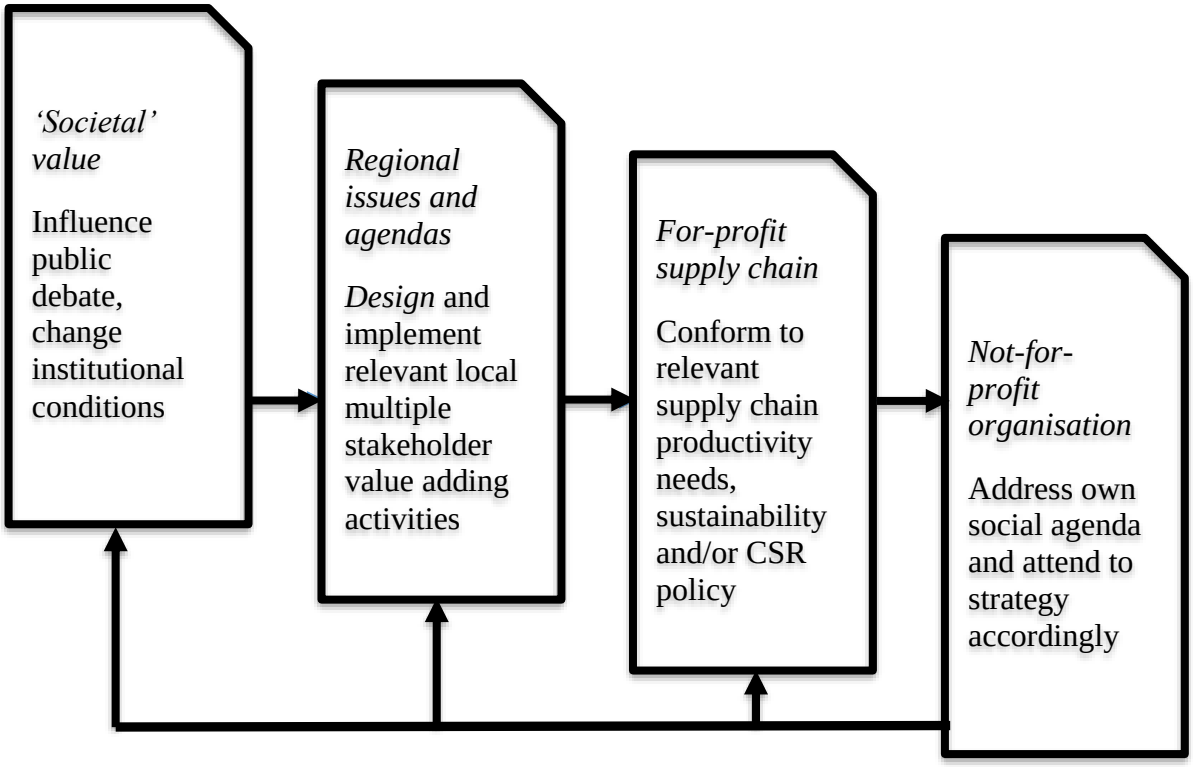
As such the food bank was at the centre of unique shared value arrangements. The example was given above of different food banks, while each closely collaborating with separate private sector food donors in different highly competitive supply chains, also collaborating with each other in the interests of achieving common social goals. While such arrangements could be explained under CSV or 'Strategic CSR for Competitive Advantage' from a food business agenda point of view (e.g. as a whole of industry sector response) they were in fact food bank generated strategies that were (as explained earlier; see Figure 5.2 and Table 6.1) a part of the broader set of complex institutional and other arrangements around the broader social agenda and not only the supply chain integration of the food bank under CSV-like conditions.

Therefore the research setting and opportunity allowed for a finer grained understanding of how the food bank emerged (in Chapter Four) and of the nature of shared value at different levels (societal, supply chain, organisational), different sectors (private, not-for-profit, and government) and different outcomes (shown in the model in Figure 7.1, further below). In other words, the conceptual value and limitations of CSV needs to be assessed with regard to its appropriate level of application and analysis and with regard to other extant concepts such as stakeholder inclusive CSR.

7.3 Model of Food Bank Supply Chain Integration

This section builds upon Table 6.1 in Chapter Six and presents a model of not-for-profit organisation supply chain integration. The model is based on a more characterised set of processes rather than simply a chronological order of events and is presented to show the possible different levels of analysis and avenues available to future researchers. The following figure represents a theoretical process of the successful integration of a not-for profit organisation, with a defined social agenda, into a relevant for-profit supply chain.

Figure 7.1 Model of the processes involved in the integration of a not-for-profit into a for-profit supply chain and a value creation strategy for successfully pursuing a social agenda



The relationships in Figure 7.1 (above) are arranged in descending order to represent (going from left to right in italics) four different levels characterised as '*societal*', '*regional issues and agendas*', '*for-profit supply chain*' and '*not-for-profit organisation*' at which the processes of integration occurred. The first three relationships represent the processes or sets of factors already discussed in the previous chapter. The fourth relationship represents the outcome of a not-for-profit maintaining or adjusting its internal social agenda to add social value and to further develop strategy accordingly, as was also discussed. The lines that return from agenda and strategy to the processes imply that in order to flexibly adapt, to grow and to succeed, the not-for-profit must repay attention to one or more of the processes at a given point in time at the appropriate level. The model proposed is designed to stimulate the discussion of theory about not-for-profits and shared value in for-profit supply chains and, in more applied terms, to promote a new research agenda for improved food banking and food waste management practice. In sum, therefore, the contribution of this thesis was to promote and provide a basis

for the further research discussed below about (1) accepting the realities of the issues (e.g. food waste) in food supply chains and CSV-like responses to them in the shorter-term (addressed at right hand side of Figure 7.1, where CSV will more likely reside), but (2) in a manner that can be resolved with the goal of the longer-term social and environmental effectiveness of a not-for-profit (e.g. food bank) (addressed closer to the left hand side of Figure 7.1) where broader-ranging voluntary (CSR) or regulatory mechanisms or new social pressures for change will more likely reside.

7.4 Limitations and Future Research

7.4.1 Limitations

The use of a quasi-longitudinal single-embedded case design and the qualitative methods of observations, interviews and documentary analysis intrinsically does not mean that some theoretical generalisations cannot be made (Flyvbjerg 2006). However, and in addition to the points already made in the discussion of methods in Chapter Three, caution should be shown in doing so because of the following reasons. Firstly, the study was located in one region of one food banking nation (Tasmania, Australia). There were no comparator nations but there was case context provided regarding the food bank's national operating environment and regional competitor context. Secondly, this study (placed in a realism paradigm) accepted certain realities and did not look into: (1) the very nature of the Australian economy or globalisation processes with regard to food systems and food waste, or (2) specifically critique the power relations among food retailers and suppliers in food systems, or (3) enter into the issue of a what is, or is not, 'food waste' or 'food security' in a given social context (i.e. social constructionism). Therefore, the study is limited to the nature of the supply chain integration and the lessons which may be learned in the context of this study's time and space. However, as such, this study did provide many opportunities for further research based on what is now

known about the real world contextualised operations of an Australian food bank and the development over time of the particular for-profit supply chain environment in which it operates.

7.4.2 Future Research

As already noted, there were advantages in conducting an in-depth single case study but, with the benefit of hindsight, alternative methods could have been used. This study showed that the future implications of the emergence of food banks in more developed nations and their integration into supply chains are potentially both positive and negative in their effects and makes a contribution of providing a basis for the further study of not-for-profit organisations that work closely with the private sector in food supply chains. As such, it is proposed that further theoretical research should bear in mind the practical shared value adding potential of food banking as a supply chain resource efficiency response but, at the same time, provide improved theoretical frameworks to examine the effectiveness of food banking as an increasingly popular response to some very large, complex and intractable social problems. To this end, while in this study the food and grocery industries were found to be guarded about their food waste issues and practices, future researchers may be able to access food retailer cases in order to conduct multiple case research or to conduct surveys of for-profit supply chains and, building upon this study, take into account the whole of life cycle management of surplus food stuffs (e.g. adopting life cycle analysis methods and techniques).

Related research is needed on managing for improved supply chain social responsibility outcomes in conjunction with not-for-profit organisations by using improved social impact measurements. Even the supporters of SROI and/or social impact measurement generally, may wish to explore the issue of the different methodologies of the three major Australian food banks that produce SROI data with published results that appear to be neither additive nor

comparable. Research in this field could contribute both to theory around addressing the social impacts in supply chains, and to practice in the form of datasets about the net effectiveness of food banking (e.g. in their role in addressing rising levels of food waste in food supply chains). These datasets could, in turn, feed into food industry-wide or national datasets (under either future voluntary or more regulated food waste or food banking regimes).

More research is also needed on issues and on the implications of different competitive and collaborative behaviours and frameworks among other not-for-profit sectors (for example, by further drawing upon the example of food banks). In any event, the feasibility of the formation of a regional or national food banking association and the facilitating of the sharing of resources for formulating common aspects of strategy, policy and data gathering may be one avenue for not-for-profit food banking and food waste management research into the future.

7.5 Conclusion

This study has provided an exploration of the processes associated with the integration of a food bank into a for-profit supply chain over time, from the not-for-profit food bank viewpoint. The results demonstrated that the food bank offered and delivered efficiencies to the for-profit supply chain, particularly through collaborations with supply chain members under CSV-like conditions, but still maintained a social agenda and a food program of its own. The discussion argued that, in theory, such food banking arrangements could be described as a ‘win-win’ for business and society with regard to the fairly new CSV related literature. However, the model of supply chain integration supplied saw a growing and successful not-for-profit as being influenced by, and itself influencing, a broader range of social institutions, organisations and processes at different levels, including shared value creation at one level, and corporate social responsibility policy and outcomes at another.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Case Study Protocol

1. Proposed Title of the Research Project
The Integration of a Not-for-profit Organisation into a For-profit Supply Chain: Issues in Creating Shared Value in the Case of a Food Bank in Tasmania, Australia

2. Research Objectives
a) To develop a chronology of critical events relating to the formation and development of a Tasmanian food bank.

b) To determine the key activities and the nature of the creation of value as a result of the emergence of the food bank in Tasmania (with Australia-wide case context).

c) To explore pertinent issues and their implications (for the purposes of future research) involved in a not-for-profit food bank operating within its broader for-profit supply chain and social contexts.

3. Significance of the Phenomena of Interest
The Creation of Shared Value (CSV) (Porter & Kramer 2011) provides a different, potentially fruitful, perspective of the value of inter-sectoral collaborations for competitive advantage that occur within food and grocery supply chains in Australia. CSV's emphasis on both of the organisation's resource productivity agenda and its social agenda ('profit with a purpose') (Porter & Kramer 2011) lends itself to the study of food banking. However, food banking is a field where potentially emotive social and environmental issues meet day to day practical logistical and waste management issues which must be managed in a time critical manner in a multiple stakeholder environment. Whereas supply chain and CSV literature focusses on a for-profit world view, an opportunity arises to explore the issues and the implications from the viewpoint of a real-world food bank in its supply chain operating environment. The research is significant given two related concerns for government and business practitioners and policy makers: 1) the growth of not-for-profit food banking and an increasing government reliance upon its social welfare products and services *running parallel to* the intractable issue of rising levels of food waste in food supply chains, and 2) the paucity of higher-level strategy, policy and data with regard to both a) food waste as a social and environmental issue in Australia (Parfitt et. al. 2010) and b) a lack of detailed documented knowledge about the role and nature of food banking in effectively addressing such social and environmental issues.

4. Research Questions
In order to achieve the above research objectives, the following research questions are posed.

Research Questions:
RQ1: *What strategic priorities are evident for a not-for-profit foodbank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain?*
RQ2: *What types of shared value is perceived as strategically important by the managers of a not-for-profit foodbank when integrating into a for-profit supply chain*?

The case study as a research strategy (following Yin 2009) will involve firstly and more broadly interrogating the secondary literature and publicly available documents in order to scope the issues. Secondly, food banking employees will be approached and interviewed about the issues in value creation in food banking Australia-wide, and then in more detail for the case study organisation, where more specific and detailed questions will be asked of respondents, documents and observed phenomena. As such, there will be two main areas of overlapping inquiry:

a) General questions concerning the profile and growth of the Australian food banking sector: its key organisations, models and value creating processes, especially with regard to the social and environmental claims and the achievements around food banking in Australia; and,

b) Specific questions related to the historical development, and the business and social significance of, the value creating activities of a not-for-profit food bank in the context of its real world for-profit supply chain operating context.

A copy of the interview questionnaire is attached in Appendix B.

5. Selection of Research Participants

The interviewees will be approached through the contact details provided in public sources of information, mainly the Annual Reports of Australia's four main food banks. This source of secondary data identifies the main organisational and individual actors in the food banking sector and also identifies the stakeholder communities, including business sponsors and philanthropic supporters of food banks and government funders.

6. Recruitment of Research Participants

Each of the interviewees will be approached initially by phone or email, where the purpose of the research will be made clear to them (i.e. the value creating processes of a food bank). After providing a brief overview of the purpose of the study, the details of the interview procedure will be fully explained to the interviewee: that is, informing the interviewee of their rights (as set out in the relevant attachment), and of the obligations and the duties of the investigators including, but not limited to, the interviewees right to decide against participating and to answer questions only in manner in which they feel comfortable or to decline to answer any particular questions. The consent form will be explained and presented and signed accordingly. The interviewees will be offered an opportunity to review the transcript. The 'consent' form will clearly state the time and location of the interview or observations (as would have been determined as part of the initial phone call); the 'information' sheet will provide the participant with the specific questions to be asked of them, as well as the specific 'critical incidents' to be commented upon.

7. Data Collection and Management

Employees of food banks will be approached to ascertain their knowledge of the activities of a food bank and their views of the creation of 'value' through the agency of a food bank. The participants will only be asked to make comments of a general food banking and not personal nature. Information will be gathered through the use of semi-structured face-to-face interviews and through observations and documents (see the attached guiding questions of persons, documents and observed phenomena).

The process will be fully explained prior to the commencement of questioning: the potential issues being whether the respondent is at ease, knows their rights and knows the investigators duty to protect the interviewee's privacy and confidentiality. To this end, interviews will be

conducted at the relevant food bank employees' normal place of work. Permission to audiotape the interview will involve first ensuring that the respondent is informed, is at ease with and agreeable to the process and, only then, by gaining written permission as per the attached information and consent forms. The interviewee will be fully informed (as per the information form) that any data gathered from them will be securely stored, and that it will not be disseminated in any publication without their prior approval.

8. Data Analysis

The data gathered using the various methods employed will be analysed using chronology analysis (Yin 2009) to distil how critical events occurred within a relatively complex process of supply chain integration over time. This will contribute to a better understanding of supply chains and of food banking practices, as viewed through a CSV lens, and therefore will make a contribution to both theory and more effective policy making in future.

Appendix B: Case Study Questions Guide

A. Formation

1. What were the main reasons for your organisation establishing in Tasmania?
2. Tell me about the origins/history of your organisation?
3. What were the main challenges; a) issues and b) opportunities you faced/currently face in Tasmania?

B. Activities (food)

4. What are your relationships to the food and grocery industry donors in Tasmania?
5. How does your organisations address the issues and opportunities in food waste (in food and grocery supply chains)? (I.e. what activities are most important?)
6. What value do you see coming from the management of these activities? To whom
7. How do you currently measure and/or manage your organization's environmental impacts?

C. Activities (welfare)

8. What are your relationships with the Tasmanian Government/social welfare sector in Tasmania?
9. How do you currently measure and/or manage your organization's social activities/ impacts? (I.e. what impacts/activities are most important?)
10. What value do you see coming from the management of these activities? To whom?

D. Activities (sustainable management)

11. How is your organisation funded? How will it be funded into the future?
12. What is the likelihood of your organization developing collaborations with other organisations (including other food banks) in the future? And / or social enterprises? And / or other sources of income?
13. What value do you see coming from the management of these activities?

Appendix B (i): Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: *Issues and opportunities in the value creating activities of a food banking organisation*

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1. I have read and understood the 'Information Sheet' for this project.
2. The nature and possible effects of the study have been explained to me.
3. I understand that the study involves an interview consisting of around ten questions, lasting approximately 45 minutes, about my organisation and the issues around food banking and the management of surplus and unwanted food (or food waste).
4. I understand that all research data will be securely stored on the University of Tasmania premises for five years [or at least five years], and will then be destroyed.
5. Any questions that I have asked have been answered to my satisfaction.
6. I agree that research data gathered from me for the study may be published provided that I cannot be identified as a participant.
7. I understand that the researchers will maintain my identity confidential and that any information I supply to the researcher(s) will be used only for the purposes of the research.
8. I agree to participate in this investigation and understand that I may withdraw at any time without any effect, and if I so wish may request that any data I have supplied to date be withdrawn from the research.

Name of Participant:

Signature: Date:

Statement by Investigator

☐ I have explained the project & the implications of participation in it to this volunteer and I believe that the consent is informed and that he/she understands the implications of participation

If the Investigator has not had an opportunity to talk to participants prior to them participating, the following must be ticked.

☐ The participant has received the Information Sheet where my details have been provided so participants have the opportunity to contact me prior to consenting to participate in this project.

Name of investigator

Signature of investigator Date

Appendix C: Coding Categories for Case Study Data Analysis

1. Australian food industries

    a. Food donor types

        The purpose of this code is to capture data relating to organisations that donate materials to food banks. The data is further aggregated in subsequent rounds of coding to capture data about food donations from different parts of food supply chains, the categories of which are derived from the literature.

        i. Farmers and growers

        ii. Manufacturers

        iii. Wholesalers and distributors

        iv. Large supermarket retailers

        v. Other retailers

    b. Supply chain social impact issues

        This code will capture data about the apparent social impact issues being addressed by a food organisation supporting a food bank. Initial aggregation of the scoping data saw three main environmental sustainability issues emerge.

        i. Food waste production

        ii. Food waste in landfill

        iii. Greenhouse gas emissions

    c. Policies

        This coding will capture data about the food industry policy area under which the supply chain social impact issues are apparently addressed.

        i. Resource productivity

        ii. Social responsibility

        iii. Sustainability

        iv. Specific food waste policy

            a. Food Waste Management Hierarchy

            b. Divert food to food banks

    d. Behaviours

        To capture data about the apparent reasons for donating food and the management of food waste, with subsequent rounds of coding (1 through 5 below) capturing data about a proxy measurement of effective food waste policy implementation.

i. Apparent reasons for donating food to food banks

ii. Reported nature of food donations of food to food banks

iii. Reported total volumes of food waste

iv. Reported portion of total food waste sent to food banks

v. Apparent residual waste

2. Australian food banking sector

This code will capture data about the diversity of the stakeholder profile of the food banking sector in Australia, and subsequent rounds of coding will elicit information about each stakeholder.

a. Food banks

i. Volunteers

ii. Employees

iii. Senior management

iv. Boards

v. Consultants

vi. *Pro bono*

b. Food donor organisations

c. Foundations and corporate philanthropists

d. Community funds

e. Individual supporters

f. Governments

g. Social welfare agencies

h. Community service organisations

i. Consumers of food bank products and services

3. Australian food banks

This code will capture data about individual Australian food banks and key differences between them. Subsequent rounds of coding will discern variations in the approaches to the sustainable management of food waste as indicated by the activities that add value to food waste in order to achieve the food bank's different charitable aims, respectively.

a. Charitable aims focus

Data is captured about the charitable aims of food banks and their apparent achievement at different levels of social impact. Subsequent rounds of coding allowed comparisons of social impact claims with activities undertaken, as indicated by the different types of

value adding activities, and products and services developed in each food bank that clearly matched their stated charitable aims.

i. Food system sustainability

ii. Food security

iii. Hunger

iv. Nutrition

v. Food waste

vi. Advocacy

b. Variation in models

This code is designed to capture data about the different models of food banking and how these models are identified by the extent to which they vary from the default clearing-house model of food banking. This code was further aggregated by the types of value adding activities evidenced.

i. Operational focus

ii. Variation from a clearing-house model

a. Value adding activities

c. Growth and (sustainable) management

Growth data is captured with reference to the activity of food collections by volume and geographical spread data is captured with regard to the number of branches each food bank opened over time in Australia.

Management data is captured and further aggregated with regard to a) the presence or absence of policies and systems that relate to the environmental and quality management of potential food waste within food banks and the supply chains, and b) by the sustainability of sources of funding including those indicted by the food bank's funding model and its ties (more or less formal) to sponsors, governments and the more powerful and well-resourced food supply chain members.

i. Growth: Volumes of food

ii. Spread: Number of branches

iii. Funding model

a. Sources of funding

b. Social enterprises

iv. Collaborations and partnerships

a. Food supply chain members

b. Other food banks

c. Governments

d. Community organisations

v. Policies

a. Food product quality

b. Environmental sustainability

vi. Quality systems

4. Tasmanian food bank

These codes capture data about the Tasmanian food bank's formation and the development of its current activities.

a. Formation events

Data about the formation of a new food bank is captured by the presence of key events that are further aggregated under four emergent themes:

i. Historical factors

ii. Socio-political factors

iii. Supply chain factors

iv. Sustainable growth factors

b. Development of key activities

Data was captured and further aggregated with reference to the food bank's a) value chain and coded under categories which reflect b) value chain activities.

i. Inbound logistics/procurement

ii. Operations

iii. Outbound logistics

iv. Marketing and sales

v. Quality Systems

5. Value adding to food waste

This code elicits data about value adding to food waste which is further aggregated by a) the type (or the location) of value and b) the level at which value is added (due to the interventions of a food bank).

a. Types of value

Data about the type of value offered and promised (created) due to food banking is identified by its proximity to upstream versus downstream stakeholder organisations.

i. Activities upstream of food bank

a. food donor organisations

b. Other food banks

ii. Activities downstream of food bank

c. Social welfare channels

a. Community food programs

b. Level of accrual

Data about the value that flows from the activities of a food bank are identified as the accrual of benefits at different levels. The default level (code) is ‘social’ and the data are further aggregated at the local community and supply chain and ‘other specified’ levels where indicated by the presence of a specific economic and/or environmental and/or other specified benefit being derived by a specified entity or individual.

a. ‘Social’ beneficiary

b. Local community beneficiary

i. Environmental benefits

ii. Economic benefits

iii. Other specified benefits

c. Supply chain beneficiary

i. Environmental benefits

ii. Economic benefits

iii. Other specified benefits

d. Specified other beneficiary

i. Environmental benefits

ii. Economic benefits

iii. Other specified benefits

Appendix D: Figure 5.1 SecondBite Surplus Food Supply Chain and Value-adding Activities